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SOME DETERMINANTS OF ROLE-TAKING ACCURACY

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The varying ability of people to put themselves in the place of others or groups of others has been the subject of considerable recent investigation under such headings as social perception, sociometric perception, role taking, and empathy. The results of these studies have been both conflicting and confusing.

One area in which an apparent divergence of findings has occurred concerns the relationship between a person's status in the group and his role-taking ability relative to that group.

The range of such divergence in findings is indicated by the following: Ausubel compared the sociometric status of high school students with their perceptive ability. He concluded, "An individual's sociometric status has also been shown to be essentially unrelated to his *ability* to accurately perceive his own or others' sociometric status. . ."[1]

Gage and Exline uncovered no significant relationships between the ability of persons to perceive the opinions of others and their effectiveness in the group.[2] To the contrary, Powell and associates,[3] and later Miller,[4] found a positive relationship between role taking and status.

After studying the relationship between sociometric status and sociometric perception, Gronlund suggested that perhaps low sociometric status is a function of inaccurate perception of others, leading to inappropriate behavior and rejection.[5] Similarly, von Lennep and Honwink, in the use of the Four-Pictures-Test, noted that socially well-adjusted behavior seemed to be related to general ability in role taking, and

[1] D. Ausubel, "Reciprocity and Assumed Reciprocity of Acceptance Among Adolescents, A Sociometric Study," *Sociometry*, 16: 343.

[2] N. L. Gage and R. V. Exline, "Social Perception and Effectiveness in Discussion Groups," *Human Relations*, 6: 381-96.

[3] R. M. Powell and associates, "An Experimental Study of Role Taking, Group Status, and Group Formation," *Sociology and Social Research*, 40: 159-65.

[4] J. L. Miller, "Sociometric Perception and Role Taking in a Camping Situation," master's thesis, 1954, University of Oklahoma.

[5] N. E. Gronlund, "Sociometric Status and Sociometric Perception," *Sociometry*, 18: 122-28.

maladjusted behavior to margin of error in role taking.[6] Also, Bell and
Hall discovered a positive relationship between leadership and empathy.[7]

These investigations are only a sampling of those appearing in the
recent literature. Assuming that they are all methodologically sound and
that the results of each are valid for the groups in question, attention then
must be focused upon other factors.

In most instances, the various investigators apparently assumed they
were dealing directly with social or sociometric perception, empathic
ability, role-taking ability, etc., whereas in actuality this ability may have
been but one of many factors involved. More likely, the studies have all
dealt with the phenomenon of role-taking accuracy within a specific
situation, involving social interaction among a particular grouping of
personnel.

If this point of view is accepted, the differences between the various
findings are more readily explainable.

Leonard Cottrell, in his 1950 presidential address to the American
Sociological Society, alluded to the presence of these other factors. He
pointed out that results of research had suggested that the empathic
responsiveness of a particular individual will vary with the situational
context. Cottrell also believed that the perception of social situations
under observation is greatly sharpened when the participant observer is
aware of his covert role taking and deliberately stimulates himself to do
it systematically. Furthermore, he observed that deliberate role-taking
practice would also seem to enhance a person's role-taking ability.[8]

These factors are not taken into consideration, however, in Cottrell's
definition of empathy. In fact, the definition refers to role-taking or
empathic accuracy rather than to any empathic skill itself. As defined by
Cottrell, "... an empathic response of individual A to individual B is
that response of A to B assumed to take place whereby A is able to
correctly predict B's response to a specific situation."[9]

Cottrell appeared to recognize this failure of the definition to take
into consideration other factors involved, i.e., the situational context,
methodological considerations, etc., "But this merely sets up correct
prediction as a way of testing the degree to which A has taken B's role.
It says nothing about the nature of this process." [10]

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[6] D. J. von Lennep and R. H. Honwink, "Projection Tests and Overt
Behavior," *Acta Psychologie*, 9: 240-53.
    [7] G. B. Bell and H. E. Hall, Jr., "The Relationship between Leadership and
Empathy," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 49: 156-57.
    [8] L. S. Cottrell, Jr., "Some Neglected Problems in Social Psychology," *American Sociological Review*, 15: 705-12.
    [9] *Ibid.*, p. 708.
    [10] *Ibid.*

A test of empathic ability formulated earlier by Dymond represented an attempt to measure the ability to see things from the other person's point of view. She said, "The empathic test or Rating Test... would seem to require that the individual take the role of the others, or empathize with them in order to see himself as others see him. . ."[11]

Her test, however, failed to consider the qualifying factors Cottrell mentioned. It actually tested role-taking accuracy, not role-taking ability.

Among the more recent literature is the study by Taguiri, Blake, and Bruner in which they found that if two individuals have mutual feelings toward each other, their impressions of each other are likely to be accurate, whereas if feelings between them differ, their accuracy of perception is decreased. The authors conjectured, "If mutuality of feeling happens to be absent, they may be at cross-purposes with each other—a situation relieved by the practice of politeness and reserve designed to mask feelings whose recognition might prove disruptive. In any case, accuracy of perception in interpersonal relations seems as much a product of other factors as a skill in its own right."[12] This conclusion is corroborated in general by research carried out at the University of Oklahoma within the past six years.[13]

One of these factors (or sets of factors) which appears to be involved in role-taking accuracy is the "situational context" which Cottrell mentioned.[14] Review of the literature and research at the University of Oklahoma indicates variations of role taking according to the situation.

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Among the situational factors which apparently bear an important relationship to role-taking accuracy are:

1. *The Type and Circumstance of Interaction.* If, for example, the group is small and meets within an informal setting for purposes of congenial association, a given subject's role-taking accuracy may differ considerably from what it might have been in a different situation under different circumstances. In fact, if this informal situation is characterized by a good deal of frankness and honesty in group relationships, very little role-taking skill may be required in order to achieve a high degree of

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[11] R. F. Dymond, "A Scale for the Measurement of Empathic Ability," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 13: 129.

[12] R. Taguiri, R. R. Blake, and J. S. Bruner, "Some Determinants of the Perception of Positive and Negative Feelings in Others," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 48: 585-92.

[13] Powell and associates, *op. cit.*

[14] Cottrell, *op. cit.*

role-taking accuracy. A case in point is the Navy study of leaders and
isolates by Powell and associates in which an isolate grouping spent two
weeks together. During this time, the subjects tended to become almost
brutally frank with each other in a friendly way.[15] Taking the attitude
of another (or others) in this situation should not have been difficult.

2. *Motivational Relevance Which the Situation Holds for the Sub-
jects.* It must not be assumed that all interacting individuals in a par-
ticular group situation have the same motives influencing their behavior;
the range in motives may be very wide. For example, acceptance within
a particular grouping may be important to one individual and mean very
little to another. Thus, Sarbin postulated that "... success in taking
a dramatic role or hypnotic role depended upon favorable motiva-
tion..."[16] Also, Schiff found that perceptual judgments are related
to motivational orientation.[17]

When acceptance is important to the role taker, he will tend to be
very sensitive to relevant communication bits informing him of others'
attitudes toward him. On the other hand, if the subject is relatively
unconcerned with the feelings of others, he may fail to perceive those
relevant information bits which could inform him as to how he stands
in their eyes. With reference to this, Cottrell indicates his belief "... that
the perception of social situations under observation is greatly sharpened
when the participant observer is aware of his covert role taking and
deliberately stimulates himself to do it systematically."[18]

This relevance of motivation as an influence in role-taking accuracy
was demonstrated in a recent investigation among a class of university
students enrolled in an elective course dealing with role-taking theory.[19]
The size, personnel, and informal nature of the class were such as to
stimulate more than the usual amount of informal association among class
members. After allowing a period of time sufficient for a network of
interpersonal relations to arise, a series of periodic role-taking tests were
given extending over the remainder of the semester.

The results revealed that the group members, as a whole, improved
in their accuracy of perception of others' attitudes. It was further noted
that generally those students who manifested greater motivation toward

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[15] Powell and associates, *op. cit.*
[16] T. R. Sarbin, "Contributions to Role-taking Theory: I. Hypnotic Behavior,"
Psychological Review, 57: 255-70.
[17] Schiff, "Judgmental Response Sets in the Perception of Sociometric Status,"
Sociometry, 17: 207-27.
[18] Cottrell, *op. cit.,* p. 708.
[19] R. M. Powell, An unpublished study of the development of role taking
among a group of university students, 1955-56.

the remainder of the group, as indicated through class participation and in the forming of after-class associational groupings, tended to increase in their role-taking accuracy most.

While several factors were obviously involved in determining the subjects' role-taking accuracy, the investigation does appear to lend support to Cottrell's contention that perception is sharpened in social situations where participants are aware of role taking and deliberately stimulate themselves to role-take systematically.[20]

3. *The Acting Ability of the Other(s)*. Some individuals are exceedingly adept at role playing. It is most difficult to obtain from such persons the relevant information bits which equip one to role-take with them effectively. As the role-playing abilities of others decrease, the role-taking accuracy of the role taker should tend to increase. A good actor may not only disguise any relevant information concerning his actual attitudes, he may even play a given role so well that the role taker picks up information relative to the role being played which convinces him that the actor has attitudes contrary to the actor's actual attitudes.[21]

4. *Attitudinal Consistency of the Other(s)*. If the role taker is interacting with individuals who are consistent in their attitudes, it is much easier to ascertain their attitudes and responses accurately than if these others are continually changing attitudes and roles.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A nonsituational factor which should be taken into consideration in determining role-taking accuracy relates to the analysis of role-taking data.

If, for example, variations of sociometric procedures are utilized in determining role-taking accuracy, certain methodological considerations arise. As a general rule, people tend to choose more persons than they reject. Therefore, those subjects who perceive themselves as being highly chosen by others will tend to have greater role-taking accuracy than those who perceive themselves as being average or underchosen. If the investigator resorts to the use of proportions in order to avoid the statistical bias in favor of the person who perceives himself to be well chosen, other methodological difficulties are encountered.

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[20] Cottrell, *op. cit.*, p. 708.

[21] The distinction between role playing and role taking is the same as that made by W. Coutu, "Role-Playing vs. Role-Taking," *American Sociological Review*, 16: 180-87.

As an illustration of this, Jim perceives himself as chosen by John and John chooses him. Inasmuch as this is the only choice Jim indicates and the only one he receives, proportionately he has a perfect role-taking score. A second student, Harold, perceives himself as being chosen by six individuals, five of whom choose him. Which person, Jim or Harold, is the better role taker?

Research indicates than underchosen individuals generally tend to be less expansive than others.[22] In the example involving Jim, there may have been very little role taking exercised. The relationship could have been such that each of the two men knew the other's feelings without much anticipation. On the other hand, Harold may have been forced to engage in intensive role taking in order to perceive accurately the attitudes of five others. Although this illustration relates to the use of sociometric procedures, role-taking analysis presents a number of problems, whether these or empathic scales are used.

Hastorf and Bender indicate some of the problems encountered with empathic scales. In 1952 they reported a study in which "an attempt was made to isolate the factor of projection from what is assumed to be empathy... Without some correction for projection, attempts to measure empathy do not seem to make psychological sense."[23] Again in 1953 they report, "A scale of 42 items was administered to 50 Ss who then attempted to predict the responses of four associates who also responded to the same scale. Four deviation scores were obtained from the data for the variables of similarity, projection, raw empathy and refined empathy. ... The data clearly indicate that there is a generalized tendency for some of the Ss to project consistently and for others to have empathic ability."[24]

In a 1955 study dealing with response patterns on the refined empathy score, Hastorf, Bender, and Weintraub found, "The refined empathy score, although controlling for similarity, is still an unsatisfactory measure of empathic ability. The patterns of response, previously unperceived, act through the scoring system to influence to a large extent, the refined empathy score. A subject receives a high empathy score, not necessarily because of his high empathic ability, but because of his pattern

[22] R. M. Powell *et al.*, An unpublished study of the relationship between role taking and sociometric status among four different groupings of fourth grade students, 1955.

[23] A. H. Hastorf and I. E. Bender, "A Caution Respecting the Measurement of Empathic Ability," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47: 574-76.

[24] Bender and Hastorf, "On Measuring Generalized Empathic Ability (Social Sensitivity)," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 48: 505-06.

of response and the pattern of response of the associate whom he chooses."[25]

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although the basic postulates of role-taking theory are generally accepted, attempts to corroborate empirically and to extend further the theoretical assumptions involved have resulted, in some instances, in diverse and apparently conflicting findings.

A number of investigations under the various headings of social perception, role taking, empathy, and sociometric perception have probed into this general theoretical area. The differences between the titular emphasis of these investigations are more apparent than real. Basic to all of these studies has been the perception of the subjects involved. A large number of the investigations have utilized variations of sociometric procedure as the method of tapping these perceptions.

The relationship between perception, role taking, and empathy was indicated by Turner: "Role taking in its most general form is a process of looking at or anticipating another's behavior by viewing it in the context of a role imputed to that other.... Studies dealing with role-taking capacity or *empathic ability* attempt to measure the degree to which the other-role as imaginatively constructed corresponds to the actual role as that other experiences it, and the individual is said to be taking the role of the other only when he accurately infers the other's feelings or anticipates his behavior."[26]

The variations in the findings presented in the reports published to date in the general theoretical area designated by the above interrelated terminology become more readily explainable when one accepts the point of view that these investigations have been influenced by other factors as well as the sheer ability to role-take itself.

These studies actually have measured the phenomenon of role-taking accuracy as related to specific social situations and groupings.

It is not to be assumed that role-taking ability cannot be measured through role-taking accuracy. In studies to date, however, role-taking accuracy has involved variables other than role-taking ability itself. This is evidenced by the fact that an individual's role-taking accuracy may vary considerably from one situation to the next, whereas one would expect his role-taking ability to change quite slowly.

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[25] Hastorf, Bender, and D. J. Weintraub, "The Influence of Response Patterns on the Refined Empathy Score," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 51: 341-43.

[26] R. H. Turner, "Role-Taking, Role Standpoint, and Reference-Group Behavior," *The American Journal of Sociology*, 61: 316-18.

From the empirical evidence at hand it would appear that such situational factors as the type and circumstances of interaction, the motivational relevance which the situation holds for the different subjects, the acting ability of the other(s), and the attitudinal consistency of the other(s) are all influences affecting the subject's role-taking accuracy.

Still another consideration affecting accuracy of perception relates to the analysis of the data. Whether sociometric-type devices or empathic scales are utilized, there arise methodological problems which make it difficult to evaluate the subject's actual role-taking or empathic ability.

It is not the intent of this paper to imply that the above considerations are the only ones affecting role-taking accuracy. Rather, they are factors which have become apparent in previous attempts to measure role taking.

It remains for future investigations to ferret out the as yet undisclosed influences involved, to isolate factors, and to devise precise methodology for the measurement of role-taking *accuracy* in order to expose the actual function of role-taking *ability* in social interaction.

THE ROLE OF THE MILITARY SOCIOLOGIST
IN OPERATIONS RESEARCH*

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The rapid growth and development of the Armed Forces of the United States in recent years have resulted in a social situation unique in the nation's history. Between past wars, the rapid demobilization of "citizen-soldiers" has always left the Armed Forces with no more than a skeletonized organization of military professionals. During these demobilization periods, the military establishment has consistently been relegated to the role of a minor social institution and has often tended to display the characteristics of a closed social system, subservient to the American tradition of civilian supremacy over the military. In the present historical era, however, and for the foreseeable future, the necessity for large-scale and complex Armed Forces has made the military establishment a major institutionalized feature of American society. With its current budget of thirty-eight billion dollars, personnel strength of more than two and one-half millions, and hundreds of thousands of civilian employees, the military establishment is exerting a profound influence upon the political, technological, economic, and social systems of the entire nation.

Despite the obvious social implications in the above facts, the purpose and scope of military sociology, as it focuses on military social systems and military life, are not well understood by military planners, operational researchers, and decision makers. Even less well understood is the role of the military sociologist in "operations research."[1] Military operations research, like operations research designed to reduce areas of uncertainty in business and industrial planning and decision making, seems currently to have a decidedly technological and economic orientation. One of the most uncertain factors in military planning and decision making is the reaction of military social systems to technological and economic change. Conceivably the military sociologist can make an

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[1] For a further discussion of "operations research," see Joseph F. McCloskey and Florence N. Trefethen, *Operations Research for Management* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1954), and Richard Hays Williams, ed., *Human Factors in Military Operations* (Washington, D.C.: Operations Research Office, The Johns Hopkins University, 1954), Chap. 2.

important contribution in reducing this uncertainty, but his role in operations research appears to be in need of further definition and clarification.

Military sociology is currently suffering growing pains like those suffered by industrial sociology in recent years. In many respects, the military establishment has now become the largest business, industrial, and administrative organization in the country. Therefore, the roles of the military sociologist and the industrial sociologist in operations research have much in common. Both should constantly demonstrate the necessity for keeping the impact of technological and economic change on organizational social systems and subsystems always in sharp focus in every operations research design. Both should constantly demonstrate the fact that social systems are the ultimate "action systems" upon which the success of organizational operations, however carefully planned, will depend.

At present, there appears to be a decided dependence upon the principles of "scientific management" in the planning and conduct of military operations. Military planners tend to analyze military operations *objectively and quantitatively* in terms of manpower requirements and technical and economic efficiency. As recently as February 1957, Secretary of the Army Brucker wrote:

> In all their studies, Army planners have uncovered nothing to indicate that electronic devices or improved weapons can replace the need for men. Nor will reorganization of the division and field Army under the Pentana concept lessen the Army's overall manpower needs. On the contrary, the vast width and depth of combat fronts will expand the areas of deployment and thus increase the quantitative need for men. Extra manpower will be required to supply widely dispersed units....[2]

Although military planners obviously are fully aware of quantitative manpower needs for technological warfare, they tend to make the assumption that military social systems are "givens," which can be objectively remodeled, through indoctrination and training, to accept technological changes smoothly and rapidly. This is understandable because indoctrination and training are functions of military command. Nevertheless, resistance to change, generated by interservice rivalries and military customs and traditions or transferred to the military environment from the civilian culture, often presents military planners with very real problems of a *subjective* nature, related to value-systems in the military culture as well as in the parent American culture. This is an

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[2] Wilber M. Brucker, "A Year of Army Progress," *Army Information Digest*, February 1957, pp. 6-7.

area in which military sociologists and anthropologists can make a distinct contribution to operations research; that is, to the extent that they can place their research fingers on the social and cultural pulse and diagnose the subjective causes of objective negative effects apparent in the functioning of military social systems. For example, the recent report of the Cordiner Committee, recommending that military pay be more realistically related to abilities and skills and less to longevity, is exhaustive research designed to provide military social systems with objective economic rewards and thereby increased motivation. But military sociologists and social psychologists know very well that economic motivation alone is not the complete remedy for low morale and inefficiency in military social systems. Often, other and more subtle motivational factors are involved, which background operations research by military sociologists and social psychologists can place in sharper perspective.

Almost daily the public press or military periodicals provide the military sociologist with specific instances of the impact of technological change on military social systems. For example, he reads:

Guided missiles are creating sweeping changes in the Army and the Air Force, lesser changes in the Navy, but creating problems for all. . . .

The new Army will be at least as large as the old, because manning and maintaining the missiles will employ many men. . . .

The Navy is specializing more in atomic power plants and supersonic aircraft than missiles. With the atomic-powered submarine Nautilus, the Navy is putting more emphasis than ever on underwater warfare. . . .

The Air Force is moving along toward the far tomorrow when it will quit flying. A non-flying Air Force isn't coming soon but missiles are already pushing aircraft out of the skies. . . .[3]

95 B-36's scrapped; rest of fleet of 383 H-Bombers doomed. . . Without ever dropping a bomb or firing a shot in anger, the "battleship of the air" is on its way out. . . .[4]

The military sociologist must have imagination and must not be afraid to make predictions which will lead to better understanding and control of military social systems and subsystems. As he reads the above evidence of rapid military technological changes, his imagination should be both staggered and fired. He should imagine himself at a research round table asking such questions as: "Despite our national pride in technological progress and economic efficiency, are we devoting enough research dollars to predicting and controlling the effects of technological and economic changes on *organized* military social systems? Or are we saving research

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[3] *Army-Navy-Air Force Register,* Washington, D.C., August 3, 1957, p. 8.
[4] *Washington Post and Times Herald,* Washington, D.C., August 18, 1957, p. A-1.

dollars only to be forced to spend them later on *postoperational research* concerning *disorganized* military social systems?" In his imagination, these should become $64,000 questions, although he very well knows that he cannot build and display laboratory models of social systems with the same degree of objectivity with which models of technological and economic systems can be built and displayed. And he should realize, of course, that he is in a disadvantaged position in competing with technologists, economists, and others for research dollars, because of his comparative difficulty in validating his predictions.

Thus far, the discussion of the role of the military sociologist in operations research has been more general than specific. Sociologists have already made specific contributions to planning and decision making for military operations. Unfortunately, however, many of their research efforts have been considered "background" research rather than *"action-oriented"* operations research, despite the fact that many military plans and decisions have been directly or indirectly influenced thereby.

Charles E. Hutchinson has recently suggested specific research areas in which military sociologists have made significant contributions.[5] Some of the areas suggested by Hutchinson are "background" areas, while others are "action-oriented" problem-solving areas. It would seem then that there needs to be a clearer distinction made concerning which of the military sociologist's research efforts are "operational" and which are "nonoperational." This distinction can be made on the basis of whether his research will or will not influence "action," *i.e.,* military planning and decision making. Specifically, the military sociologist can influence "action" in at least three distinct areas: (1) studies of the functioning of military bureaucracies, (2) studies of satisfactions, dissatisfactions, and morale in military life, and (3) studies of resistance to change in military organizations. There are at least two basic ways in which he can fulfill this specific role: (1) by supplying background information and (2) by studying on-going military social systems.

Currently, sociologists on the full-time staffs of organizations engaged in operations research are difficult to find. In view of their scarcity and the present state of technological development of the military forces, it can be argued, as has been done here, that the point may now have been reached where a significant return per military research dollar can be obtained from research analyses of military social systems and subsystems

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[5] See Charles E. Hutchinson, "The Nature of Military Sociology," *Sociology and Social Research*, 41: 426-33.

as they respond to technological and economic changes. The end products of such research may very well lead to techniques for "conditioning" military social systems to absorb the impact of rapid technological development and economic change and to respond more favorably to them.

In summary and conclusion, the role of the military sociologist in operations research appears to be at least a dual one, for he obviously has a "selling job" on his hands and he must be prepared to debate vigorously the question of "social versus technical efficiency."[6] Not only must he demonstrate to military planners and decision makers the wisdom and economy of research efforts focusing on the effects of technological warfare on military social systems but, conversely, he must offer valid research evidence that efficient military social systems are the ultimate "action systems" upon which the effectiveness of technological warfare of the future will depend.

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[6] See such a discussion in Wilbert E. Moore, *Industrial Relations and the Social Order*, revised edition (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951), Chaps. VII and VIII.

DIFFERENTIAL MOBILITY IN HONOLULU

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This study reports some of the social, demographic, economic, and housing characteristics of "movers" and "nonmovers" in Honolulu, as determined from a sample survey of 2,000 households. The survey was made by the Honolulu Redevelopment Agency and *Honolulu Star-Bulletin,* using address lists prepared by the publishers of the Honolulu city directory. A detailed statement of methodology has already appeared elsewhere.[1] Data reported in the present analysis were tabulated from replies to the question "Where did the head of this household live just one year ago?"

Approximately one fourth of all household heads in the sample replied that at the time of the survey (January 1957), they were living in a different house from the one they had occupied a year previously. Non-movers comprised 74.5 per cent of the total; movers from other houses in the Honolulu Standard Metropolitan Area, 14.9 per cent; movers from other parts of the Territory, 0.6 per cent; movers from the continental United States, 8.6 per cent; movers from other territories or possessions and foreign countries, 1.3 per cent; and households not reporting this item, 0.1 per cent.

Mobility varied greatly from neighborhood to neighborhood. Among the eighteen survey areas defined for the study, the highest rate was that found for Waikiki, where 52.6 per cent of all household heads were occupying a different house in January 1957 than twelve months earlier. A military housing area near Pearl Harbor was second, with 44.8 per cent. Rates were lowest in and near the central business district, ranging downward to only 10.4 per cent in one case and 11.5 in another. The city-wide ratio was 25.4 per cent.

Small households were more mobile than large ones. Average household size for movers was 3.76, compared with 4.59 for nonmovers.

There was little difference in proportion of household membership under eighteen years of age. Persons under eighteen accounted for 42.5

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[1] See Edward J. Burns, "Honolulu Housing Statistics Up-dated via Co-operation in Newspaper Survey," *Journal of Housing,* 13: 400-01, November 1956, and the Honolulu Redevelopment Agency, "Honolulu Household and Housing Survey, 1957, Part I: Trends Since 1950," *Redevelopment and Housing Research,* 8: 3-21, April 1957.

per cent of all members of mover households and 43.6 per cent of the total for nonmovers.

Caucasians revealed greater mobility than other ethnic groups, with 40.4 per cent of the household heads in this category reporting a changed address since 1956. For other major racial groups (Chinese, Filipino, Hawaiian, and Japanese), rates ranged from 11.9 to 20.0 per cent. The rate for the miscellaneous races (Korean, Puerto Rican, Negro, and Samoan) was 30.8 per cent.

Movement was especially great for military households. Where the household head was a member of the armed forces, 62.3 per cent indicated a change of residence over 1956. The corresponding ratio for non-military households was 17.0 per cent.

Mobility was inversely correlated with family income. Median annual income was $4,505 for movers but $5,542 for nonmovers. By income group, mobility was as follows: less than $3,000, 35.6 per cent; $3,000 to $3,999, 36.4 per cent; $4,000 to $4,999, 27.2 per cent; $5,000 to $6,999, 20.4 per cent; and $7,000 or more, 17.8 per cent.

Place of employment was also a factor. Household heads employed in the central business district had lived elsewhere a year earlier in 14.1 per cent of all cases. The rate was 19.4 per cent among household heads employed outside the central business district but inside the city limits, and 40.3 per cent among those working outside the Honolulu city limits. Included in the latter category were persons employed at Pearl Harbor, Hickam Air Force Base, Schofield Barracks, and other large military installations in "rural Oahu."

Movers reported a slightly longer time required to go from home to work than nonmovers. The median time reported was 19.7 minutes for the former and 18.6 minutes for the latter.

Private housing was found to have lower turnover rates than housing controlled by either the Hawaii Housing Authority or armed services. Only 22.9 per cent of the household heads occupying privately owned or operated units reported moving during the preceding year, compared with 25.0 per cent of the occupants of public housing and 51.5 per cent for units under the control of the armed forces.

As might be expected, turnover was greater in rental housing than in owner-occupied units. Rates were 9.9 per cent for the latter category, 36.7 per cent for the former. Owner-occupied dwellings on leased land were found to have greater turnover (16.1 per cent) than those on fee simple property (9.0 per cent).

Among rental units, turnover was roughly proportional to rent level. Rates were 14.2 per cent for units with monthly rental less than $50.00, 41.4 per cent for those renting for $50.00 to $74.99, and 54.4 per cent for those renting for $75.00 or more. Median rent was $57.00 for units in which no change of occupants had occurred, compared with $72.00 for units occupied by a different household head in 1957 than in 1956.

Turnover was lowest in overcrowded housing. In units with 1.00 person per room or less, the rate was 27.4 per cent; in units with 1.01 to 1.50 persons per room, it was 21.6 per cent; in units with 1.51 or more persons per room, the rate was 19.7.

Turnover was especially high for multiunit housing. Rates were 15.5 per cent for units in one-unit structures, 26.4 per cent for units in two-unit structures, 41.5 per cent for those in structures with three or four dwelling units, and 48.7 per cent for units in structures with five or more units.

There was a negative relationship between turnover and number of rooms. The rate was highest for dwelling units with one to three rooms (44.7 per cent), and progressively declined for units with four rooms (25.3 per cent), five rooms (19.4), and six or more rooms (14.1).

Oddly enough, standard housing was found to have higher turnover rates than substandard housing. In units reported by occupants to be in need of major repairs, only 17.6 per cent of the household heads had lived elsewhere a year earlier; in units reported not in need of major repairs, however, the corresponding ratio was 27.2 per cent.

Turnover rates were lower in old housing than in that recently constructed. By year built, rates were as follows: before 1920, 11.3 per cent; 1920 to 1939, 16.7 per cent; 1940 to 1949, 29.2 per cent; 1950 or later, 34.8 per cent. Median year of construction was 1941 for units with the same occupants as a year earlier and 1947 for units with different occupants.

The mobility and turnover rates reported above appear to be generally representative of their respective population and housing groups. The sample was big enough (2,000 households for all categories combined) to ensure statistical reliability, as measured by chi-square analysis. Although findings were limited to a city of relatively unusual geographic characteristics, they conformed to what has been learned in scattered studies and informal observation in other American cities.

The Honolulu experience suggests that surveys of this kind, wherever made, will prove useful to many local agencies, especially to those engaged in housing, planning, redevelopment, and renewal work. Such

studies throw new light on an aspect of population and housing dynamics that has received relatively little attention in the past. They reveal the limited mobility of occupants of cheap, dilapidated, or overcrowded housing—the very groups most in need of change and of greatest concern to various health, welfare, and housing agencies. Still another advantage to mobility and turnover studies is the information they give regarding the availability of housing in a given area, as measured by vacancies occurring over a period of time.

SOME EFFECTS OF ROMANTICISM DURING COURTSHIP ON MARRIAGE ROLE OPINIONS

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There is in current structural-functional theoretical speculation concerning adolescence and courtship much emphasis on a romantically oriented youth subculture. This culture, it is suggested, facilitates adjustment by providing the adolescent with appropriate forms of tension release and by encouraging emancipation from dependency on the parental home, thus easing the transition to adulthood.[1] We have elsewhere reported on a study of the incidence of acceptance of romantic statements among college students at various courtship stages. This paper is concerned with another aspect of the youth subculture. An answer was sought to the general question: If there is present in the youth culture a pronounced unrealistic, romantic emphasis, is this reflected in adolescents' attitudes toward marital role behaviors? The theory cited above would predict an affirmative answer. This study seeks to deduce some researchable hypotheses from functional speculation and to test these hypotheses by using appropriate data.

The Hypotheses. Four hypotheses dealing with romantic distortions in the youth culture of marriage role opinions were worded, based on pertinent structural functional and reference group theory. In each case it will be apparent that romanticism is understood to operate as an intervening variable, mediating the effect of different courtship statuses of subjects on the attitudes of subjects.

Hypothesis 1. "The marital role opinions of people will change at different stages of courtship." Each dating and courtship stage—casual dating, favorite dating, going steady, engagement, and marriage—generates a unique and in some cases romantically unrealistic pattern of attitudes through its peculiar combination of tensions. This pattern is reflected in the marital role opinions of courtship status occupants.

Hypothesis 2. "The marital role opinions of adolescents at premarital courtship stages will tend to be unrealistic expectations." This hypothesis assumes that adolescent marital role opinions are subculturally defined, and that the subcultural definitions will be romantic in response to the tensions of the culture carriers.

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[1] Talcott Parsons, *Essays in Sociological Theory, Pure and Applied* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1949), p. 221 *et infra*.

Hypothesis 3. "There is a cyclic movement in adolescent marital role opinions such that the opinions of adolescents at the beginning and at the end of courtship are most similar. The opinions of 'going steady' adolescents will be most divergent from those of pre- and post-courtship adolescents, and the opinions of 'favorite dating' and engaged adolescents will be of intermediate divergence." Adolescent tensions will increase during courtship because parents and children will be in greater conflict: adolescents strive for dating autonomy and parents seek control of an area pregnant with potentialities for brilliant or disastrous consequences, as Davis stresses.[2] Thus, peer group membership tends to become more important during courtship through the going-steady stage, and tends to generate increasingly romantic or unrealistic attitudes. There is a retreat from the youth culture oriented opinions in engagement and a further retreat in such movement in marriage because by definition the romantic opinions of the youth culture are unrealistic. Engagement may be understood as anticipatory socialization to the realism of marriage.

Hypothesis 4. "The closer adolescents are to the 'going steady' courtship status, the more homogeneous or similar will be the marital role opinions of male and female adolescents. The closer they are to the pre- and post-courtship stages of nondating and marriage, the more heterogeneous will be the marital role opinions of male and females." The homogeneity of male and female viewpoint at the going-steady stage results from joint love emphasis. The heterogeneity of viewpoint at the precourtship and postcourtship stages stems from (1) the wide diversity of contemporary American family types and the diversity of husband and wife roles within these families, and (2) set biases in marital role opinions, since given forms of marriage may be quite prejudicial to the advantages of husbands or wives. The ideal marriage from the male point of view might impose hardships on the female partner, and vice versa.

The Instruments. Construction of the marital role inventory and of the Romanticism Index have been described elsewhere.[3] The marital role inventory consisted of seventy statements such as: "I would prefer in marriage to have only one child, if having more meant a sacrificing of

[2] Kingsley Davis, "The Sociology of Parent-Youth Conflict," *American Sociological Review*, 5: 523-35, 1940.

[3] Clifford Kirkpatrick and Charles W. Hobart, "Disagreement, Disagreement Estimate and Non-Empathetic Imputations for Intimacy Groups Varying from Favorite Date to Married," *American Sociological Review*, 19: 10-19, February 1954; Hobart, "The Incidence of Romanticism During Courtship" to be published in *Social Forces*.

companionship with my mate," "In my marriage I want the wife to share in proportion to time and ability in the financial support of the family," "In my marriage I want the wife never to oppose her husband's sexual desires," to which the respondent answered "strongly agree," "agree," "no opinion," "disagree," or "strongly disagree." The Romanticism Index consisted of twelve items selected from the Gross Romanticism Scale. Items were selected according to (1) suggestions made by Gross, (2) the pattern of responses of subjects to all items on the Gross scale, (3) the ratings of sociologist judges of items according to their pertinence, and current validity for romantic students. Sample items chosen include: "Lovers ought to expect a certain amount of disillusionment after marriage," "A person should marry whomever he loves regardless of social position," to which respondents answered "agree" or "disagree."

The Sample.   Strenuous efforts were made to obtain a 100 per cent sampling of the 923 undergraduate students, together with their off-campus relationship partners—dates, fiancés, and mates—at a West Coast, sectarian, coeducational college. Returns were actually obtained from only 3 out of every 4 students and from the same proportion of off-campus partners. The final "sample" consisted of 831 subjects, 250 of whom were in the "no particular date" category, 180 were favorite daters, 159 were going steady, 122 were engaged, and 120 were married subjects. Analysis revealed that freshman men, senior men, and senior women tended to be underrepresented in this sample.

No correlation was found between courtship status and social class position. There was a tendency for younger subjects to be nondaters or favorite daters and for older subjects to be engaged or married. These findings give limited justification for making the tentative assumption that subjects at each courtship stage are generally comparable in characteristics other than age. Since the responding students constitute a self-selected sample, the findings of this study may not be generalized to a larger population.

Testing the Hypotheses.   Hypothesis 1 states: "The marital role opinions of subjects will differ at different stages of courtship."

There were 700 comparisons to be made in testing this hypothesis—10 comparisons (among 5 categories of subjects) for each of the 70 marital role inventory items. Thus the pertinent question is: Were the significant differences so numerous that chance alone could not account for them? At the 5 per cent level of confidence 35 differences would be expected if chance alone were operating, and at the 1 per cent level 7 differences would be expected. For the male portion of the population 161 significant

differences were found between the personal response tendencies of men at different courtship stages: 103 at or beyond the 1 per cent level and 58 between the 5 per cent and the 1 per cent levels of confidence. These differences involved 58 out of the 70 items. For the female portion of the population 174 significant differences were found, 105 beyond the 1 per cent level and 69 between the 5 and the 1 per cent levels of confidence. Fifty-five items were involved. Thus the hypothesis is substantiated.

Hypothesis 2 states: "The marital role opinions of adolescents at premarital courtship stages will be unrealistic opinions."

The test of this hypothesis involves the assumption that where change in role opinions during courtship takes a straight-line development from nondating to married opinions, there is evidence of progressively maturing expectations. However, where change of role opinions is cyclical in nature, where nondating and married people's opinions are similar but favorite dating and/or going steady and/or engaged couples' opinions differ from those of nondating and married people for the same questionnaire items, this may be interpreted as movement from realism to unrealism and back to realism. This interpretation may be justified by the suggestion that married people should have realistic marital role opinions, since they are already involved in marriage, and that any statistically significant divergence of opinions from those of married people would have to be an unrealistic deviation. Cyclic patterns of marital role opinions were defined as response patterns to questionnaire items where nondating and married subjects' opinions were not significantly different, but favorite dating, and/or going steady, and/or engaged subjects' opinions differed significantly from the nondating or married people's opinions. For the men 33 items exemplified such a statistically significant cyclical pattern in the role opinions of people at different stages of courtship. For the women 29 items were characterized by this cyclical movement. This hypothesis is accordingly accepted.

Hypothesis 3 states: "There is a cyclic movement in adolescent marital role opinions such that the opinions of adolescents at the beginning and at the end of courtship are most similar. The opinions of 'going steady' adolescents will be most divergent from those of pre- and post-courtship adolescents, and the opinion of favorite dating and engaged adolescents will be of intermediate divergence."

Two tests of this hypothesis are required. The first tests the prediction that the marital role opinions of going steady people will differ significantly on more issues from those of no-particular-date people than

will the opinions of married and/or engaged, and/or favorite date people. The pertinent data for males are found in Table I.

TABLE I

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN COURTSHIP STAGES FOR MALE PERSONAL RESPONSES TO MARITAL ROLE ITEMS, BY CONFIDENCE LEVELS

Courtship Stages	Number of items per courtship stage				
	Married	Engaged	G.S.	F.D.	N.P.D.
Married total		17	15	13	17
1% level		6	10	10	9
5% level		11	5	3	8
Engaged total	17		5	19	23
1% level	6			12	15
5% level	11		5	7	8
G.S. total	15	5		10	28
1% level	10			5	21
5% level	5	5		5	7
F.D. total	13	19	10		14
1% level	10	12	5		5
5% level	3	7	5		9
N.P.D. total	17	23	28	14	
1% level	9	15	21	5	
5% level	8	8	7	9	

These data show that the marital role opinions of males exhibit the hypothesized relationship. The marital role opinions of going steady males differ significantly from those of no-particular-date males on 28 items. For engaged males the number is 23 items, for favorite date males 14 items, and for married males 17 items. In each case 3.5 significant differences would be expected at the 5 per cent level and .7 significant differences would be expected at the 1 per cent level if chance alone were operating here.

Pertinent data for females were organized in a table similar to Table I.[4] Here the pattern of the data was not so clear; it is the engaged group that differs most from the no-particular-date group in marriage role

[4] Copies of these are available upon request from Charles Hobart, Social Science Division, University of Redlands, Redlands, California.

opinions, by 34 items. The going-steady group is second with 22 items significantly different from the no-particular-date group responses. The married group is third with 13 items, and the favorite-date group is last with 7 items significantly different from the no-particular-date group responses.

The second test of the hypothesis tests the prediction that the marital role opinions of going steady people will differ significantly on more issues from the opinions of married people than will the opinions of no-particular-date, and/or engaged, and/or favorite date people. Table I and Table II (not given here) show that neither the male nor the female configurations of opinions fit this pattern. For the males the going steady, engaged, favorite date and no-particular-date groups differ significantly from the married group on 15, 17, 13, and 17 items respectively. For the females the engaged group differs by the largest number of items, 20 items, from the married group, followed by the going steady group with 18 items different, the favorite date group with 13 items different, and the no-particular-date group with 13 items different.

Four tests of hypothesis 3, two for males and two for females have given the following results: one test for males clearly supported the hypothesis, the other gave negative results. Both tests for females showed the engaged group as the most divergent in marital role opinions instead of the going steady group, as hypothesized.

Hypothesis 4 states: "The closer adolescents are to the 'going steady' courtship status, the more homogeneous or similar will be the marital role opinions of male and female adolescents. The closer they are to the pre- and post-courtship stages of non-dating and marriage, the more heterogenous will be the marital role opinions of males and females."

The test of this hypothesis involved calculation of the standard deviations of the combined male personal responses and female personal responses to the items of the marital role inventory, the sample being sub-classified by intimacy groups. In this way the question of opinion homogeneity or heterogeneity, the tendency of the responses to cluster or to scatter, was approached directly by comparing the standard deviations of the combined male and female personal responses, at different stages of courtship. These data were organized into a table,[5] again similar to Table I, which showed the distribution of the number of items wherein the standard deviation of one intimacy stage group was significantly larger than the standard deviations of the other intimacy groups. This table shows that the no-particular-date group has standard deviations

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[5] Available by writing to the author.

which are significantly larger on more items, in comparison with more groups, than any other intimacy category, the number being 51 items. The favorite-date group is second in number of significantly larger item standard deviations than any other group, with 25 items; followed by the married group with 20 items, the going steady group with 12 items, and the engaged group with 6 items. These data show that advancement in courtship was, as hypothesized, characterized by increasing homogeneity of male and female opinions and was characteristic of engagement rather than of the going steady status, as the hypothesis predicted.

Implications. The implications for theory of two negative findings of this study must be considered. (1) For females maximum difference of marital role opinions from those of nondating and married subjects was found to occur at the engaged stage rather than the going steady stage, as hypothesis 3 predicted. (2) For males and females maximum homogeneity of opinion occurred at the engaged stage rather than at the going steady courtship stage, as hypothesis 4 predicted. These findings seem to deny the applicability of the reference group theory concept "anticipatory socialization" to the courtship process. Were the concept applicable, maximum romantic distortion and maximum homogeneity of opinions would have been characteristic of the going steady stage, since engagement, the only premarital stage involving a definite commitment to marriage, is the only stage at which anticipatory socialization could take place.

The remainder of these findings point to rather impressive substantiation of much of the theory on which the hypotheses were based. We have shown that there are differences in marital role opinions of subjects at different stages of courtship and that some of these opinions may be interpreted as unrealistic. The opinions of going steady and engaged subjects are, on many issues, significantly different from the opinions of nondating and married subjects. The opinions of the former groups are more homogeneous than are the opinions of the nondating and married subjects.

That the above differences are between classes of people occupying different status positions rather than between individuals strongly suggests a subcultural origin rather than idiosyncratic origins of these phenomena. Granted the assumption of the comparability of subjects in each of the status positions, it follows that it is the statuses which subjects occupy, rather than their individual peculiarities, that have generated these differences. The findings may be interpreted as pointing to the existence of a set of distinctive perspectives or of subcultural norms which

are different for advanced courtship subjects from those of nondating subjects, and from those of married subjects. Thus these data do tend to point to the existence of a set of shared viewpoints, an adolescent subculture such as Reuter, Parsons, Davis, and others have described.

Some alternative interpretations of these data may be considered. These findings might reflect growing maturity of viewpoint with respect to marital role behaviors. This interpretation would assume different developmental stages of learning, rather than several subcultures within which learning takes place. However, the fact of a cyclic movement in role opinions—involving similarity between the opinions of nondaters and married people, but dissimilarity between the opinions of going steady and engaged people in contrast to those of nondating and married subjects—is difficult to explain in terms of this theory.

Another approach might dismiss all of these findings as artifacts of the data-collecting method. That our data may involve artifactual elements we readily admit, since subjects were required to respond to all items, and to respond in predetermined ways. However, this does not explain the numerous statistically significant differences which were found. An emphasis on the artifactual components of the data fails to explain these significant differences which do demand theoretical interpretation.

Another "debunking" approach might discount all of these data in terms of the invalidity of the responses due to an insincere or "kidding" tendency on the part of the respondents. Aside from the fact that we could not detect such attitudes in more than half a dozen cases, such an interpretation still fails to explain statistically significant differences between the response patterns of various groups.

In conclusion, it must be pointed out that the concept of a youth subculture does have significant explanatory value. This seems to be the only approach which suggests a satisfactory interpretation of the paradoxical finding that in some respects the attitudes of nondating subjects in our sample resemble the attitudes of married subjects more closely than do the attitudes of going steady and engaged subjects.

CURRENT SOCIAL TRENDS

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Utopians and others have pictured ideal conditions on earth as calm and static. The stationary state has been viewed as the goal toward which the stream of events flowed. After the goal is reached, history is to end. However, experience proves that earthly life is rarely calm and never unchanging. Normal men and women who have not reached old age are not content with fixity. They constantly strive for advancement, for prestige or recognition by others, for more consumable goods and services, for leisure, amusement, and gadgets. Man is a restless creature. He wants to keep up with or get ahead of others in his community or group.

In his famous chapter on the Stationary State, John Stuart Mill declared a static state would be "a very considerable improvement over present conditions." He did not feel that fierce competition, "the trampling, crushing, elbowing, and treading on each other's heels," was the most desirable form of human existence. Again Mill declared, "but the best state for human nature is that in which, while no one is poor, no one desires to be richer nor has any reason to fear being thrust back by the efforts of others to push themselves forward."

As a matter of fact, human nature has been nurtured under conditions precisely like those disliked by Mill. Plants struggle for a place in the sun. Animals devour plants and other animals. Man has ever faced fierce competitive struggles which change in form under different circumstances. Life, in all its forms from the lowest to the highest, is conditioned by some type of competitive struggles.

How would man—accustomed through the ages to a changing, but ever-present struggle for existence and for prestige and power—respond to an environment of static sweetness and light? We do have reason to believe that some form of competitive struggle will continue, modified by the enforcement of legislation for the protection of the old, the young, the sick, etc. Tooth-and-claw competition has, in a measure, given place to competition within limits, with the worst features eliminated. The rattlesnake, sagebrush, and the spiny cactus are the products of tooth-and-claw competition; domesticated animals are protected from these forms of competition. They live a relatively sheltered life.

A vigorous and healthy society may be able to banish war; but, in view of the heritage of men and women, rivalry and competition may be expected to continue in some form. Indeed, such a condition seems desirable and essential to progress toward higher standards of living and of culture.

Competition or rivalry is a spur to action, to achievement. Tooth-and-claw competition leads to destruction and danger; regulated competition may be beneficial. Laws protecting person and property restrain the more crude and brutal forms of rivalry, but permit competition within limits as do rules in regard to football competition on the playing field. A situation in which there is no opportunity for rivalry or competition would lead to stagnation and inefficiency in business, in playing games, and in research.

The problem is not that of eliminating competition or rivalry; it is that of ascertaining the best rules of the game for a given era and location. Freedom for the individual depends upon preventing any one group or interest from becoming predominant—government, capital, labor, farmers, etc. In a complex world and a complex economic society, government emerges as the most appropriate institution to define the bounds within which competition may operate freely. It should also attempt to prevent monopoly.

If men and women are destined to live in a dynamic world, if the world is not moving toward a stationary state, are we able to ascertain, with a reasonable degree of accuracy, the goals toward which we are now moving? Obviously, in a changing world, goals or objectives undergo modifications as time and events pass. Furthermore, since people on this globe live under varying physical, economic, and spiritual environments, different groups and areas may be expected to develop unlike and oftentimes conflicting aims or goals at any particular time. There may be growing unanimity in regard to a few important aims such as peace between nations, higher standards of living, and the reduction of crime; but there will doubtless remain many differences in regard to national, local, group, and personal aims.

A list has been compiled of fifteen more or less conflicting objectives in the economic sphere. In addition, there are many in the political, moral, religious, and cultural realms. These objectives are not only conflicting but also changing with modified living and working conditions. Labor organizations, Chambers of Commerce, farmers' organizations, bar associations, medical associations, and many others have quite different

and changing objectives or purposes. There are multitudes of pressure groups which strive vigorously for particular causes. Objectives which fit into the stream of events will be attainable, wholly or in part; those which do not will sooner or later become lost causes. Increasing international travel and world trade, better educational facilities, and improved scientific methods will tend to iron out the most irritating differences between peoples and cultures.

Are we moving toward a more attractive and peaceful life here on earth? Unless in the near future civilization is destroyed by another world war, the answer is yes. Advances in science and technology, in transportation and communication, and in education, a slow decrease in personal discrimination, the end of colonization, and the rise of many new and independent nations who, however, are affected by world opinion, that is, by the attitude of other nations—all point toward better human relations. The stream of events today is leading toward closer partnership between business and government; toward governmental aid for flood control, roads, and river and harbor improvements; for the prevention of inflation and run-away credit expansion; for more protection of the old, the sick, the injured, and the unemployed.

In spite of the antagonisms of today, the significant signs point toward closer and friendlier international relations, toward a political and economic confederation of the world. As a consequence, diminished war expenditure may be anticipated in the not distant future. Science and technology are also pointing toward the desirability of some type of world organization. The discarded League of Nations and the United Nations are the direct products of recent tendencies as outlined above. A world community with generally accepted ideals of justice and fair dealing, in which the crushing expenditures for war have been eliminated wholly or in part, and in which free trade exists, will be one with a diversity of economic and social groups, and without extreme poverty.

It is difficult, if not impossible, for men and women of today—living under war clouds and the intense fear of Communism, with international barriers of various kinds, and with much crime and disease in all parts of the globe—to picture a world community in which these and other hindrances to the good life have been removed. Education for all; adequate food, clothing, and shelter; short working periods; little drudgery—these and other items may mean a world as different from that of today as Athens in its glory was different from the Stone Age. The culture and splendor of Athens and of all early civilizations rested

upon the slave, the drudge, the peasant, upon degraded men and women. Today, machines and power from coal, oil, the sun, and the atom point hopefully toward a new world without drudgery and serfdom.

While there is today an upthrust of nationalism in many small countries recently freed from control by European nations, as in the Middle East and in Africa, the longer-run tendency is toward greater unity. In Europe, there are definite movements among the West European nations toward a United States of Europe or at least toward a confederation. As colonialism ends, a danger resulting from lack of experience and training on the part of the mass of newly emancipated has appeared above the political horizon. They and their leaders do not as yet possess the knowledge and experience essential to successful independent national existence. At the time of the American Revolution, the new nation had many leaders who were able to guide successfully the newly launched Ship of State. Without such trained and experienced men the United States would have encountered storms which might have led to dictatorship or to the end of the Union.

In the United States the age of the "common man" is now indicated, but the average man is becoming what has been called middle class. He owns some property and has a stake in the economic life of the community. He is tending to become more conservative, to fear great changes in property rights or in governmental programs. The conservative who is of value in a dynamic world has not become ossified. Many a business leader of today is far in advance of backward-looking legislators.

The benefits of private business enterprise should be given publicity. Certainly, the negative approach, with attacks upon other systems, is less to be desired than a positive one showing the benefits of individual effort and initiative. In the ultradynamic world of today, there is unusual need for men of initiative, imagination, and ingenuity. Brain power of a high order is sorely needed in this complex, changing world. Adaptable men and women are in demand to chart tendencies and to guide mankind away from pitfalls and hidden dangers.

In pioneer days, the worker was a power plant and a production unit. In the machine age, he was a definite part of the production unit. But, in the age of automation, the worker is to be employed "to design, to build, to service, and to control." Brain power, rather than muscular energy or manual dexterity, will be essential for all connected with a production unit. It may also be indicated that agriculture is employing a smaller and smaller percentage of American workers. Manufacture,

which has been absorbing an increasing fraction of our workers, is now giving way to utility and railway workers, governmental employees, financial and trade workers—in short, to the service occupations. In 1958, the world is in the twilight of an old order of things and facing a new one which may mean chaos and retrogression or which may usher in an era of peace and prosperity for all peoples of the globe.

AGE AS A PRESTIGE FACTOR

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In the contemporary American thought pattern the advanced age usually means retirement, to be cut off from social contacts, the loss of opportunities to express creative impulses, and loss of social prestige (hence the reluctance of men to quit work when they reach retirement age).

But in other societies, the prestige of the aged is quite the opposite; there the aged promoted traditionalism and related it to prestige. The anthropological evidence shows that the government of a tribe or of a locality is in the hands of the "old men," or, in patriarchal society, of "the fathers"; in many languages, as in our own, such expressions as "the elders," "the city fathers," "the senate," and so forth, connote authority. In Korea, for instance, to reach the age of sixty puts one practically in the category of the immortals and constitutes one of the greatest possible events in an individual's life. Or the age system of the Nuer, a pastoral Nilotic (Nilo-Hamitic) tribe of the Southern Sudan, carries prestige for the aged.[1] Members are expected to show respect to members of senior sets, and their deference is seen in discussions, in etiquette, in division of food. Whenever a question arises about the propriety of a speech or an action, the point is judged with reference to the relative positions of the persons concerned in the age-set structure. In Asia, among the Mongols and the Kalmuchs, a woman must not speak to her father-in-law or sit down in his presence. Among the Mpongwe the young may never approach the old without crouching and baring their heads; even when passing the huts of elders the young Mpongwe instinctively lowers his head. A Korean and a Public Indian never smoke before their fathers; this would be a mark of disregard. The ancient Egyptians, according to Plato, inculcated respect for old age; they required, as we often do today, that the young rise upon the approach of the old. Like the Israelites and the Lacedaemonians, they required the young to give place, at all times, to their superiors in years. In early European history, this respect for the aged increased and has become definitely a part of the social life of the Continent. The young, especially

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[1] E. E. Evans-Pritchard, *The Nuer* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1940); *Marriage and Kinship Among the Nuer* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1951).

in Central-Eastern-Balkan Europe, are still required to pay marked deference to all older people, beginning with their parents; and the prestige of elders, until recently, has been unquestioned.[2]

In many formal bureaucratic organizations (like the army, church, and universities), considerations of seniority—and sometimes the rules of seniority—exist, although seniority is not always identical here with relative age (but with rank). Age is also of some value in those spheres which have a more diffuse and collective orientation and in which considerations of experience and accumulated wisdom are of importance. Outstanding examples in the occupational fields are country or family doctors and lawyers; in politics, "elder statesmen." All educational agencies are in the hands of the "aged," and through them they prevail upon the young to the end that the old patterns continue to function. The purpose of education (especially in the primitive societies) is especially to transmit the accumulated wisdom of the group in the form of established knowledge. Then the differentiation of groups to include "vested interests," the dominant attitudes passed down the ages and uncritically accepted by the young, is a powerful factor opposing resistance. The "vested interest" attitudes are represented by the elders, the rich, the warriors, the males, the adults, and the educated ("enlightened") individuals.

In all these cases, considerations of age permeate social relations, "although even then they are not immune from more achievement-oriented criteria, which give greater importance to younger people."[3]

One of the ramifications of this prestige factor of age is the claim to deep roots of antiquity. Thus, we have the prestige of the archaic spirit of law appealing to precedent, the fiction that the law is immemorial custom, the sanctity of "trial by jury," the mysteriousness of traditional legal phraseology, the ancient forms of procedure, the retention of wigs, gowns, seals, and criers. The traditions of ideological appeals can be seen in the claims of the slogans condemning the "Balance of Power" principle, or promoting the Monroe doctrine; in the prestige granted to classes long ineffective (the House of Lords of England); in the appeal to distant precedent, musty charters for the settlement of the rights and duties of today; in the hold of deposed dynasties; in the magical power of legitimacy which restored the French and Spanish Bourbons; in the blending of contradictions seen in the never-ending reinterpretations of the American Constitution.

[2] W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, *Polish Peasant in Europe and America* (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1927), *passim.*
[3] S. N. Eisenstadt, *From Generation to Generation* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956), p. 225.

Especially glaring is this prestige factor in the operation of government. . . court dress, court etiquette, regalia, titles, emblems of authority, royal polygamy rules, etc. Even more dominant is this factor when operating on behalf of religion—seen in the use of flint knives in sacrifice or circumcision long after metal has come in; in the higher sanctity ascribed to candles over other illuminants; in the retention of the Arabic of the Koran among non-Arabic Mohammedans, of ancient Hebrew in the Jewish services, of Latin in Catholic worship, of Old English in Bible and Prayer Books; in the preference for the faulty King James version of the Bible; in the emphasis laid on Apostolic Succession; in the settlement of disputed points by appeals to the Bible or to the Fathers.

Ceremony, too, is full of outworn symbols: gestures and picture actions of forgotten meaning, obsolete words; a royal coronation or the rite of extreme unction—all muses of antiquity. In fact, the prestige of all institutions is always strengthened by its claims to "ancient" roots (but notice that the subjects which have no symbolic value—such as simple tools or a car—are condemned when they do not perform their task, especially because they are "old").

In the social hierarchy, the members of the managerial cliques and those in executive positions always tend to be older people. In fact, membership in a definite age group more often than not defines the individual's position and status; this is demonstrated by the fact that identification papers and passports always carry the age or the year in which one was born. When the age is reinforced by social values, meanings, rights and duties, this biological factor becomes a sociocultural force and is then controlled by the organized age groups. All societies stratify, legally and factually, the age groups, with different rights, duties, statuses, roles, privileges, and disfranchisements. For instance, in the United States a definite age is required for the election to Congress or to the Presidency. In some cases, the younger groups are deprived of all rights and subordinated entirely to the elders; in others, the differences are fewer, milder, and more limited. In fact, no known society with the real legal and factual age equality of the status of different age groups is known. Even in America, probably the only country in the world "where the children educate their parents," and "get away with murder" (as actually made possible by the fact that, for instance, in the state of Connecticut, the criminal can be classified as such only when 16 years of age), the younger age groups are deprived of many rights and privileges (the right to get a driver's license, to get married without the parents' consent,

etc.). Nevertheless, in our competitive society, which glorifies youth, the youth outshines the council of elders within the framework of generalized concepts of prestige.

Interestingly enough, the "American youth culture," with its repudiation of adult standards, represents, from one point of view, a kind of compensation for the lack of prestige in the adult world and a way of getting back at older people who will not grant them this desired recognition. "The orientation of the youth culture," states Parsons, "is more or less specifically irresponsible."[4] Yet the cult of the "old," "ancient," is persistently appreciated by the dominant culture patterns in spite of the ideology of progress which glorifies everything which is "new," changing, and a substitute for the "old." This is evident from the persistent efforts to achieve prestige by the attempts to present the new as actually old phenomena. In America, the appeal to the Founding Fathers and the Constitution is the eternal *coup de grâce* of any argument (especially the much overworked Fifth Amendment). The English people feel today that there is, somehow, some mystical connection between Queen Elizabeth of today and the Queen of the same name who ruled centuries ago, and who represented a great age in English history. In fact, the whole history of mankind could be written according to this principle. The early as well as the contemporary kings (as King Zog of Albania) have always been stressing that their pedigrees could be traced to some well-known hero regarded with reverence as a mythical ancestor of the tribe or tribes over which they have been ruling. Napoleon, to sanctify his rule, summoned the Pope from Rome to anoint him, and received the acclamations of his army in the iron chair of Dagobert, held court at Aachen, first capital of the Holy Roman Empire, and crowned himself King of Italy with the Iron Crown of Charlemagne in Milan.

Contrariwise, since novelty also carries the halo of prestige, the old pretends to be new. Divines pretend that the contradictions found in the Bible are really confirmed by the modern investigations in heredity. Even the dogma of the Immaculate Conception is now believed to be confirmed by the "finding of the latest science." Old-fashioned imperialism talked about a "civilizing mission" and the "white man's burden"; the same imperialism is today talking about the "new order," or the "rule of the proletariat." If the old cannot assume the guise of youth, it then strives to discredit the new by making it out to be old. Thus the conclusions of the critics of the Scriptures are treated as "old heresy" that has been disposed of again and again.

    [4] Talcott Parsons, "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States," *American Sociological Review*, 7:606.

INTERMARRIAGE IN WEST AFRICA*

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Africa in general, West Africa in particular, is beginning to assume larger perspective in the research plans of social scientists, for it is one of the last sociologically unexplored outposts of human society. The problem of intermarriage is one that falls within this unexplored realm. Materials growing out of such research have much to offer to our understanding of culture and personality, acculturation, social conflict, marriage and the family, race relations and other factors, as well as to help in the development of an enlightened program for meeting the difficulties growing from such a human relations process. The following report is the result of observations made during the summer of 1957 in West African territories stretching from Dakar in French Equatorial Africa on the West, through Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Ghana, to Nigeria on the East.

In this paper, "intermarriage" refers only to marriages between Africans and Westerners, and in the vast majority of cases includes couples involving a Western woman largely American and English married to an African male. The reverse situation was noticed rarely; and, because in such marriages it would be presumed that the woman would eventually return to America or Europe, once her husband departed Africa, for our purposes these marriages are insignificant and do not fit into the framework of study here, except incidentally. There is no way to determine the number of intermarried couples now living in West Africa, for no records are available; but empirically it appears that the number is growing, although slowly. There are logical grounds on which to base this belief, since as more and more Africans go to America and Europe for study, special training, and the like and are thrown into greater contact with more and more people, and as more Europeans and Americans begin to turn to West Africa as an area of interest, it is only natural that, growing out of such developments, the number of people attracted to each other should increase. The fifty marriages reported on here ranged in duration from newlyweds of three months to couples married more than a decade.

Interest was, of course, centered on securing attitudinal responses from the Western spouse (which may tend to give a certain bias to the results) and the development of some general ideas from observing both partners and their children, if any, within the home environment. The couples are relatively young, the oldest being in their early forties. Most marriages seem to have grown out of college contacts while the husband was overseas studying or doing some special work. A few developed from women being associated with organizations in Europe or America concerned with Africans and African problems, while a very small minority were culminated as a result of situations in which a non-African girl, in Africa for some special purpose, met and married her husband on his home territory. In nearly all cases the marriages were performed outside of Africa and the spouse returned to Africa with the marriage partner.

As regards adjusting to their new cultural matrix, from the reports it seems that most of the non-African spouses have taken an attitude of resignation to try to live with patterns in most cases completely foreign to their background. They have gone along with the different life tempo, work at managing the home with something of a cross between their Euro-American ideas and the African way. Most have had to make some real adjustments in standards of living, because West Africa is a tropical climate and imposes certain conditions not met in more temperate zones. Many of the things taken for granted "back home," such as hot shower baths, frozen food, insect-proof homes, general sanitary practices, window screens, sewage disposal systems, and a balanced diet have had to be compromised. Entertainment patterns have had to be revised, for the variety of outlets for the enjoyment of leisure to which Westerners are accustomed are not as yet a part of the West African scene. Since most couples reside in urban communities, however, they are not faced with the problems that would be raised by the extremely limited forms and quantity of leisure-time activities customary in the more traditional rural areas where African life, in spite of new changes, has not yet caught up with mid-twentieth century momentum but flows much in age-old paths.

The society in which the Western-oriented spouse must move is different. On the whole, women in African society overtly take a secondary place and, since they are usually not as well educated as the non-African wife, they have little in common conversationally with such women, and the non-African spouse has had to make certain adjustments here in order to fit into the social world as it is known. Most have tried and made sincere effort to cultivate friends and associates within African society, but for the most part such African individuals who have

become part of the intermarried social set are the wives of their husbands' friends. And even here the adjustment has not been complete, since the African woman on the whole has had a different sort of rearing and has not had much contact with Western women or men. What this has resulted in is a sort of drawing together of the non-African wives in each community, who come to depend upon one another for companionship and thus form another alien island within the over-all African social structure. This does not, of course, help their integration efforts to become part of their adopted countries and their cultures.

From all indications where the families have remained together, the African and his Western wife seem to manage fairly well in their personal relationships. And where there are children an even greater effort seems to be made on the part of both parents to have a tranquil domestic life. It could not be determined from this preliminary survey whether or not each member of the marriage worked extra hard at making a go at the relationship because they felt they had to prove to their respective families that it could work out successfully. Generally, there seemed to be real understanding and appreciation on the part of the African husband of the circumstances which his wife faced, and he worked to make the situation as palatable as possible. There were some exceptions to this, naturally, where African husbands, once returned to the land of their birth, expected their non-African wives to follow the same pattern as African wives, including the man's right to practice polygyny. So far as could be determined no non-African wife had put up with this; when the African spouse tried to exercise this privilege, he usually lost his non-African wife.

The problem of acceptance by the African family is difficult to unravel. It must be remembered that the African family system in general is different from that usually found in the West, where the immediate conjugal type—rather than the extended family—predominates and family ties are not as binding on a large circle of relatives. Thus the system into which the Western spouse steps is foreign to what she has known in family structure, while the African family finds it difficult to comprehend the familial attitude of their non-African member. Some African families make sincere effort to draw into the family fold the non-African member, and some of the latter try to reciprocate this attempt. But becoming a part of a family structure like the African is not easily accomplished, for membership in a family is not only temporal but involves factors of reincarnation, tribe, clan, village relationships, all of which by the nature of things the non-African can never wholly

attain. The intermarried couples exist outside of the African family pattern, though there may be close association with individual African family members, especially when such members are educated, Western in some of their thoughts, attitudes, and habits, urbanized, and working to become a part of newly developing trends that tend to uproot old African customs in the drive of Africans to meet the challenge of modern times. In general, however, it can be safely said that African families frown upon Africans marrying non-Africans.

A high percentage of the intermarried couples have children, but this is not surprising, since children are highly prized by Africans and a woman generally has not proved herself until she has had a child. This survey found the number of children ranging from those couples with none to parents having as many as four. It must be kept in mind that West Africa is what is known as a "black man's country," and, though physical types may vary from territory to territory, in general this description is an apt one and conveys an accurate picture of the people. The children of mixed marriages are physically different in type from the general surrounding population and thus stand out in the African populace. The parents make every effort to give the children a "normal" life, meaning they try to make them happy in terms of their African surroundings, yet give them the benefits of Westernized education, since the parents are usually so trained. The children socialize freely with African children and, because those under observation are still rather young, negative factors traditional with what is broadly described as "half-caste" existence have not as yet impinged upon their lives. Outwardly the parents exhibit no extraordinary concern on this matter, and those with whom the problem was discussed felt it was not significant: since the children are colored and Africa is an area of colored people, the children would not have to contend with racial problems that the offspring of mixed marriages must face in noncolored countries. Based on present trends, it seems this is a valid assumption, for these children will ordinarily receive a good education and be prepared to move into good positions occupationally as Africa expands and requires more and more trained people, of whom there is such a short supply at present. In general, discrimination against such children was not observed, but it is not a factor to be entirely discounted for the future, especially in terms of family relationships and occupational opportunities when labor becomes more competitive.

As regards the incidence of divorce and separation of intermarried couples, there are no accurate statistics or other information extant on

which to make any kind of generalization. This investigation found some cases of both divorce and separation, the former having complicating factors because of the outlook on the part of the African husband to try to function within his African framework when he felt it to be to his advantage to do so. That is, when a non-African wife left him and returned home, he had gone ahead and married an African girl without going through the process of divorcing his wife legally as required in Eastern countries. Since sometimes the non-African wife had not legally divorced the African but had simply returned home, this made the African a bigamist in Western eyes and liable to prosecution should he return to his wife's country. In regard to cases of separation (and in all cases found the non-African spouse had left Africa and returned to her native land), they were due to inability of the non-African to adjust to the new life, to philandering on the part of the African husband, to illness, or were concerned with wives who had gone home for a visit and simply refused to return to Africa.

The projection made here is but a research note of a large problem that awaits intensive and extensive investigation. It is hoped that this preliminary paper points out some directions such research can follow. Aware of the difficulties that the study of intermarriage encounters in America and Europe, it should be remembered that the African scene will undoubtedly give rise to additional factors growing out of a different cultural base. Yet on the other hand, it would seem that a sound and thorough analysis could be made more easily in Africa, simply because at present, the incidence of intermarriage being relatively low, it is possible to get an almost complete sample, and the investigator found less basic hesitancy on the part of intermarried couples to discuss the problem.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF AUTOMATION

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Although automatic production has been under way for years, the term *automation* was not coined until 1947.[1] It reached Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary in 1953, and within the last two years it has received widespread scientific and popular attention. Someone has remarked that we are already leaving the push button stage, for the push buttons are "beginning to push themselves."

The thermostat, which was invented in 1830 by Andrew Ure of Glasgow, contains a basic idea of automation, namely, the feedback control. As soon as the heat in a room reaches the degree for which the mechanism is set, the source of the heat is turned off or down, but when temperature falls below the prescribed degree, the thermostat "corrects" the "error" and turns on the heat again. The feedback control means that the mechanism keeps making changes in order to fulfill the "instructions" given it.

Automation has been defined as "the use of machines to run machines,"[2] which of course is a simplified statement. Another definition states that automation is the procedure of "passing material automatically from process to process."[3] More fully, automation has three aspects: (1) One is the linking together of several machines so that materials are passed automatically from one unit to the next, with each unit performing certain specified operations. This is sometimes referred to as the mechanization stage. (2) Another aspect is the feedback control whereby the system maintains its "instructions" through the opening and closing of electrical circuits. (3) The third aspect is computer technology, or the "brains" of automation which upon being given "instructions" will perform thousands of operations per second.[4] It is too much to call electronic computers "brains," for no electronic computer does any thinking by itself; the thinking has to be done by the persons who give the so-called "instructions" to the electronic machines. Any one of these three processes—integration, feedback control, and electronic computing —or all three of them together are aspects of automation.

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[1] By D. S. Harder, a vice-president of the Ford Motor Company.
[2] P. F. Drucker, "Promise of Automation," *Harper's*, 210:41.
[3] Austin Albu, "Automation: Revolution or Evolution?" *Twentieth Century*, 158:215.
[4] H. de Bivort, *International Labour Review*, 72: 470 ff.

From the thermostat to current automatic production is a long step. The Esso Petroleum Company is credited with building a 112-million-dollar refinery in Fawley, England, in which six men operate distilling units "that process five and one-half million gallons of crude oil a day."[5] The Ford Motor Company is said to have factory units that perform 532 operations each "without workmen being employed on the line," and the Raytheon Manufacturing Company has "a new assembly plant that turns out 1,000 radios per day. It is run by two men."[6]

In this introductory statement it may be mentioned that the first International Automation Exposition was held in New York in 1954. Automatic production is well under way in Britain as well as in the United States, while the USSR is credited with having established the first Ministry of Automation and with training half a million young men to master electronically operated processes. Automation will affect office workers and factory workers most of all.

1. *How Will Office Workers Be Affected?*   In office work the automatic computers are beginning to play an important role. There are two kinds, the analogue computers and the digital computers, that are displacing workers. The slide rule illustrates a simple form of analogue computer, and the abacus is the oldest form of digital computer.[7] One of the latest types of digital computers "has 6,000 valves and will perform 200,000 additions or 25,000 multiplications in a second."[8] Office workers will doubtless feel the effects of automation sooner than will factory workers, for the problems are not so complex. Baldwin and Schultz think that it is fortunate that "the greatest immediate impact" of automation will affect "a class of workers for whom the blow can be softened most easily, namely, female employees working in large offices."[9] Automation will reduce the routine of office occupations and also the number of employees in large metropolitan offices.

2. *How Will Factory Workers Be Affected?*   Automation also will reduce routine factory work. It will overcome much of the monotonous, onerous repetition and substitute for it the reading of dials and the pushing of buttons.[10] It will make factory work safer, pleasing, more

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[5] *United States News*, 39:86.

[6] Aute L. Carr, "Automation—Substitute for God?" *The Christian Century*, 73:660.

[7] R. H. Macmillan, *Automation, Friend or Foe?* (Cambridge, England: The University Press, 1956), pp. 62 ff.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 67.

[9] G. B. Baldwin and G. P. Schultz, "Automation: A New Dimension to Old Problems," *Monthly Labor Review*, 78: 169.

[10] Carr, *op. cit.*, p. 666.

interesting, less given to routine. In fact, it is already beginning to do so, but while automation is relieving some problems it is creating others.[11]

Automation brings about a shift in the proportion of the kinds of factory labor, a shift in the direction of the maintenance of machines and away from actually operating machines, from handling materials, away from handling the products of the machine processes. These changes call for the retraining of many workers. Those who are retrained to supervise automation production will doubtless be upgraded and receive increased wages. The proportion of skilled labor to unskilled workers will be increased, but at the same time the total number of workers required to turn out a given quantity of a given product will be definitely decreased.

Not all workers can be retrained for the maintenance and supervision of electronically performing machines. Many of the older workers and those less able to make the required changes in work habits will be downgraded, receive less pay, or become unemployed. The new jobs required by automatic production will go to the younger, the specifically trained, the more mentally alert and mobile.[12]

Many older workers who lose their jobs or are downgraded will also lose their seniority rights which without automation would have yielded them marked advantages. Probably "individual workers will find that their lifetime investments in their skills are worthless," unless management's theories and practices regarding seniority rights are modified.[13]

It will not be profitable to run the very expensive automatic units on a part-time basis. A 24-hour day for such complicated units may become common, and piecework on such a basis will increase. This will further the increase in the proportion of supervisory and maintenance workers that will be employed.

Automatic production will not need a large proportion of cheap labor, and hence the demand for such labor, drawn in the past from the ranks of immigrants, will largely disappear in many factories. Automation, therefore, will not require that factories be located near a cheap labor supply.

Under automation conditions it is important that labor-management relations be well defined and agreeably maintained. An automation factory "cannot be economically shut down."[14] Strikes will be "more

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[11] Macmillan, *op. cit.*, p. 55.
[12] Arnold M. Rose, "Automation and the Future," *Commentary*, 21: 274-80.
[13] Editorial, *Nation*, December 10, 1955, p. 512.
[14] W. S. Buckingham, "Implications of Automation," *Monthly Labor Review*, 78:520.

disruptive than in less highly organized factories."[15] Changes in methods of production call for the retraining not only of workers but also of management if the new human relations problems are to be met with a minimum of friction.

The large capital investment required in the manufacture of co-ordinated electronic machinery will favor the companies with the largest capital resources. Thus automation will "reward the wealthier firms."[16] Many smaller firms will not be able to compete, and will be squeezed out of production by the larger ones. Automation tends to play into the hands of large-scale enterprise, for only such enterprise can afford the initial investment costs and is likely to do the amount of business that will justify the huge costs.

However, there is some hope for smaller firms. They will be called on to meet short-term needs in some lines of production, where it would not pay to set up expensive automation units of machinery. Small firms may survive by obtaining subcontracts from automation-geared lines of business.[17] Small firms will also continue in meeting individualized demands of special groups of consumers.

Automation processes will greatly increase production of various kinds of consumer goods. After the initial costs of automation are met, many kinds of goods can be produced at less cost than at present, but it is not certain that consumers will be favored by lower prices or a lowered cost of living. Doubtless, special efforts will be made through advertising to increase consumer wants so that surpluses can be kept down. Automation could change economic theories and bring about an economy of abundance in place of an economy of scarcity.

3. *How Will Leisure Time Be Affected?* There will be more leisure time for most workers. In fact, "mass leisure" has been predicted.[18] A four-day week is in sight. When leisure time is greater each week than work time, the question comes to the fore: Will people use leisure time to the advantage of society?

This increase in leisure time will call for a new leisure-time theory. Instead of leisure being considered as a kind of appendage to labor, or to change the figure, a kind of respite from toil, leisure will become a center of personality development in itself and a center of personal planning. It may be expected to command half of a person's planning of each week's activities, perhaps more than half, for it will involve a greater

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[15] Macmillan, *op. cit.*, p. 59.
[16] Buckingham, *op. cit.*, 522.
[17] Albu, *op. cit.*, p. 223.
[18] Carr, *op. cit.*, p. 691.

variety of special activities. Although people have learned to work well, will they be able to spend half of each week in leisure well?[19]

Increased leisure will call forth a multiplication of schemes to obtain the money of persons on leisure time by means of highly commercialized amusements. Hence, increased leisure will call for "greater self-discipline and more social training and control."[20] Not only will the retraining of workers and of management be called for, but, equally important, a retraining of people in the use of their leisure time will be needed, a need that is already present but one that will be greatly augmented by automation.

More leisure will mean hobbies and more time devoted to hobbies. But to have hobbies as means of consuming leisure will represent a relatively poor use of leisure. In other words, the questions need to be faced, To what use is a hobby to be put? What end will a given hobby serve? In what ways can hobbies mean creative activity? How can they contribute to the development of personality?

The new leisure resulting from automation can be used in behalf of a new dimension of personality growth and for new emphases on creative activity, calling for a new philosophy of leisure.[21] With leisure hours becoming the major factor in making creative activities possible, work hours will tend more and more to become a secondary factor in the development of human personality.

4. *What Educational and Social Changes Will Be Necessary?* In secondary schools increased attention will be given to the study of physics and related subjects. In colleges there will likely be a great increase in enrollments in courses leading to the electrical and mechanical engineering fields and a lack of marked increase in enrollment in the humanities and social sciences including education.[22] Engineering colleges and related research work in graduate schools will not be able for some time to meet adequately the demands.

Wealthy countries will profit by automation, while undeveloped countries will not gain except as surplus production in the former countries is made available at prices that are within reach of peasant peoples, and except as wealthy corporations in the former countries see fit to establish factories in the latter countries. Another possibility is that the governments of undeveloped countries may be able to enter the

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[19] C. E. Dankert, "Automation in the United States," *Contemporary Review*, 188:163.

[20] Carr, *op. cit.*, p. 692.

[21] *Ibid.*

[22] Rose, *op. cit.*, p. 277.

field of automatic production, at least in a limited way. There will likely develop increased competition between countries, when one or another develops automatic production first in one or another field.[23]

"Who will guide" the development of automation? asks Professor Rose. A Scottish writer (in Scotland) expresses the hope that automation will not be left "in the hands of monopolists to exploit."[24] Apparently, the management problems and the social problems connected with the spread of automation will be greater than the technological ones.[25] What will be the impact of automation upon a people's philosophy of life? Will it still further "materialize" mankind? Will it play into the hands of monopolies, making them stronger than ever? Can it be made to encourage people to be more understanding of one another and more socially minded?

Educational emphases will need to be improved in an age of automation.[26] For example, technical education, which trains an army of industrial workers, will need to change its programs in the direction of the operation of automatized factories. A training in terms of high moral and civic responsibility will be required of those who operate atomic power plants. Likewise, high moral and civic responsibility will be called for on the part of those who provide for and indirectly control the leisure-time activities of people, that is, the 72-hour leisure week of millions.

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[23] *Ibid.*, p. 279.
[24] Robert Edwards, Member of Parliament, "Automation Cannot Be Halted, but Must Be Controlled," *Scottish Co-operator*, August 18, 1956, p. 17.
[25] Macmillan, *op. cit.*, p. 88.
[26] Frederick Pollock, *Automation, A Study of Its Economic and Social Consequences* (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1957), pp. 205, 206.

A SPECIAL ISSUE

The July-August issue of *Sociology and Social Research* will be devoted entirely to the presentation of fifteen short papers dealing with "Areas for Research in Sociology." The articles and book reviews that normally would appear in this number will be moved forward to the September-October issue. The titles of articles and the names of their authors are as follows:

In Social Stratification
    Bernard Barber   (Columbia University)
In Sociology of Art
    James H. Barnett   (University of Connecticut)
In Sociology of the Family
    Jessie Bernard   (Pennsylvania State University)
In Teaching Sociology
    W. B. Brookover   (Michigan State University)
In Deviant Behavior
    Marshall B. Clinard   (University of Wisconsin)
In Social Disorganization
    Robert E. L. Faris   (University of Washington)
In Race Relations
    E. Franklin Frazier   (Howard University)
In Small Groups
    A. Paul Hare   (Harvard University)
In Population
    Philip M. Hauser   (University of Chicago)
In Medical Sociology
    E. Gartley Jaco   (University of Texas)
In International Relations
    Arnold M. Rose   (University of Minnesota)
In Industrial Sociology
    Eugene V. Schneider   (Bryn Mawr College)
In Rural Sociology
    Walter L. Slocum   (State College of Washington)
In Collective Behavior
    Ralph H. Turner   (University of California at Los Angeles)
In Sociology of Religion
    J. Milton Yinger   (Oberlin College)

PACIFIC SOCIOLOGICAL NEWS

Pacific Sociological Society. The annual meeting of the Pacific Sociological Society was held in San Diego at the Lafayette Hotel, April 10-12. Thirty-one papers were presented and discussed before the assembled members. Acting President John M. Foskett addressed the general meeting on the topic "The Westward Movement of Sociology." New officers for the coming year are Frank Miyamoto, President; Donald R. Cressey, Edwin Lemert, and F. Ivan Nye, vice-presidents of respective regions; secretary-treasurer, John James; representative to the Council of the American Sociological Society, Leonard Broom; and John M. Foskett, editor of the Society's journal.

University of California at Los Angeles. Donald R. Cressey has become chairman, succeeding Leonard Broom, who, having completed five years of service as department chairman and three years as editor of the *American Sociological Review,* is on sabbatical leave in Australia to conduct research under Guggenheim and Carnegie Corporation grants. Joining the Sociology staff in the fall of 1957 were Wendell Bell, Northwestern University, appointed associate professor of sociology and anthropology; Richard J. Hill, Bell Telephone Laboratories, appointed assistant professor of sociology; Oscar Grusky, University of Michigan, appointed instructor in sociology. Mary Jean Huntington, Columbia University, and Yuzuru John Takeshita, University of Michigan, have accepted appointments as instructors in the fall, 1958. On visiting or part-time appointments in the 1958 spring semester are Robert H. Talbert, Texas Christian University; Edward C. McDonagh, University of Southern California; Benjamin B. Tregoe, System Development Corporation; Eleanor Bernert Sheldon, UCLA School of Nursing.

San Diego State College. Two assistant professors of sociology were appointed for the academic year 1957-58: Earle C. McCannell, University of Washington, and Irving B. Tebor, Oregon State College. Orrin E. Klapp is chairman of the department, which now offers thirty-one upper division courses in sociology, anthropology, and social service. David S. Milne is chairman of the Social Science Division. Members of the Sociology Department served as hosts to the annual meeting of the Pacific Sociological Society held in April.

Stanford University. William M. McCord, formerly with the Department of Social Relations at Harvard University, has been appointed assistant dean of humanities and sciences and assistant professor

of sociology. Robert A. Ellis joined the department as an assistant professor of sociology and is compiling a bibliography on the relationship of stratification to mental illness under a grant from The Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health. Mrs. Jan Howard has been made an instructor in sociology. Paul Wallin has been appointed visiting scientist at the National Institute of Mental Health and is on leave from the university during the 1957-58 academic year. Edmund H. Volkart is serving as the social psychology member of the American Editorial and Advisory Board of the UNESCO Social Science Dictionary.

University of Southern California. Two visiting professors will teach in the Summer Session, June 23 to August 1. Dr. Robin M. Williams, Jr., chairman of the Department of Sociology at Cornell University and president of the American Sociological Society, will teach two courses: Race Relations and Advanced Sociological Theory. Dr. Williams's book on *American Community* and his studies of intergroup relations and tensions are well known. Dr. Ralph Eckert, who is teaching a course on Materials and Methods for Family Life Education in the School of Education, will offer a course on Problems of Marriage Counseling in the Department of Sociology.

PEOPLES AND CULTURE

OVERPOPULATION. A Study of Papal Teachings on the Problem, with Special Reference to Japan. By Anthony F. Zimmerman. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University Press, 1957, pp. xv+328.

This treatise, a dissertation, is the outgrowth of the Reverend Zimmerman's stay in Japan (1948-52), during which time he studied the overpopulation problem of that nation. After introducing the reader to Japan's food resources, raw materials, and the demographic picture, the study proceeds to gather together general principles, as enunciated in papal writings, for solving problems of overpopulation and to relate these views to Japan's particular situation.

Aside from the question of morality with regard to birth control practices, the author states that there are serious objections of a biological and socioeconomic nature. For example, he questions whether the economic welfare which might arise from population control can compensate for the physical damage Japan's women suffer from abortions following frequent failure of contraception. Also, he makes the point that if at any period the restriction of births progresses too far, the working-age group

of that generation would be supporting a proportionately oversized old-age population. His study therefore seeks broad solutions for the over-population problem through a program of emigration, trade, and international cooperation.

This monograph is well documented and includes a selected bibliography of both papal works and nonpapal writings from United States, Japanese, and United Nations sources. The acceptance or rejection of the main thesis of this study, that is, that all types of birth control with the exception of occasional justifiable abstinence are against the universal moral law, is, of course, a matter to be decided by the individual reader.

I. ROGER YOSHINO
State College of Washington

THE TALLAHASSEE BUS PROTEST. By Charles U. Smith and Lewis M. Killian. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1958, pp. 24.

This important source document is the product of a joint study by a member of the staff of Florida State University (white) and Florida A. and M. University (Negro). Both institutions are located in Tallahassee, the capital of Florida, where a bus strike that has attracted nation-wide attention was begun on May 28, 1956. This document gives a month-by-month account of the progress of the strike to February 1957. It would seem from reading this report that the extremists of both racial groups have hindered, if not prevented, a reasonable procedure from taking place, such as that suggested by Florida's Governor Collins, "of persuasion, peaceful petitions, and normal judicial procedures."

A.R.R.

THE CHANGING POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES. By Conrad Taeuber and Irene B. Taeuber. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1958, pp. xi+357.

This is a useful book that "presents broad outlines rather than exhaustive analyses of aspects of the total picture" of population changes in the United States. Extensive data are given from the census figures for the various census years up to 1950 and wherever possible for the years following 1950.

Part I deals with "growth" in population and includes themes, such as changes by age and sex, among immigrants, in urban and rural residence, and in metropolitan areas. A chapter of special interest is that entitled The Development of a National Population; it points out how

"the movement toward uniformity in nativity composition among the whites and the dispersion of the Negroes" are resulting in "a simplification in the formal structure of the population."

Part II discusses the characteristics of population changes as found in marital status, households and families, education, economic activity, and income. A "more diversified living for women" and "a new reconciliation of roles" of women are found; also, trends toward earlier marriage, and "the lessened frequency of childlessness and the one-child family, and the greater frequency of two-and-three-child or even larger families."

Part III presents census data concerning fertility, and Part IV gives conclusions and prospects. Broadly speaking, the growth of the population in the United States "is the result of immigration," while "current increments to the Nation's population" come from "natural increase rather than from net immigration." The total emigration to the United States is pronounced "the largest intercontinental movement in history."

Recent and current internal migration "flows from areas of relatively higher natural increase that are more heavily agricultural to areas of relatively lower natural increase that are more heavily industrial." It is noted that "high dependency ratios are inherent in continued high birth rates," and that "rapid aging of the population is inherent in reduced birth rates." The authors have produced an exceedingly useful analysis of census data.   E.S.B.

JAPAN BETWEEN EAST AND WEST. By Hugh Borton, *et al.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957, pp. xxii+327.

In this book six coauthors, working with a study group of the Council on Foreign Affairs, present their studies based on the common theme of Japan's future role and status in the international community of nations.

Hugh Borton, now president of Haverford College, discusses Japan's basic political issues and the future of her democratic institutions inherited from the American occupation. Paul F. Langer, of the University of Southern California, presents a paper dealing with the latest developments of communism in today's Japan. Jerome B. Cohen, professor of economics at the College of the City of New York, studies the international aspects of Japan's stringent economic situation. Donald Keene, of Columbia University, describes Japanese writers, the general public, and its reading habits in a section entitled "Literary and Intellectual Currents in Postwar Japan and Their International Implications." C. Martin Wilbur, who succeeded Dr. Borton as the director of Columbia

University's East Asian Institute, covers the topic "Japan and the Rise of Communist China." William J. Jordan, *New York Times* correspondent, surveys Japanese foreign relations with the noncommunist world and with the communists, and examines the prospects for the future.

Of special interest to the sociologist is the Appendix, which presents some Japanese attitudes regarding the East and West as revealed in twelve polls conducted by public opinion polling institutions.

While the limitations of space can certainly be appreciated, this informative and well-documented book would have represented a more comprehensive coverage had it also included a social-psychological or cultural selection. Unfortunately, much too little attention is being paid to the national character, personality, and cultural values of other peoples in understanding their feelings and position.

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I. ROGER YOSHINO
State College of Washington

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A PROFILE OF HUMAN CULTURE. By Elman R. Service. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958, pp. xiv+457.

In this anthropological study an effort has been made to organize each of the chapters in a similar form in such a way that the reader will recognize differences in culture which are *real* differences, "not merely reflections of divergent interests on the part of various ethnographers."

The book is an attempt to give the reader an understanding of the vast range of primitive cultures in the world. Here are presented samples of the major types of non-European cultures. Each chapter is necessarily treated briefly in order to cover twenty chapters, which at times seem to lack thoroughness. The author asks, "What are the major types of culture? In what ways do cultures differ?" He finds societies at widely different levels of social complexity. Some are lowly hunters and gatherers with a simple type of social organization.

Part One presents four *bands* of this type, including the Arunta of Australia and the Andaman Islanders. He finds horticulturists and pastoralists with a larger society forming a tribe.

Part Two devotes eight chapters to these *tribes,* which cover such societies as the Jivaro of South America, the Navaho, the Trobriand Islanders, and the Tahitians.

Part Three considers four primitive *states,* which supported large populations in a complex state organization. This group treats four of

these primitive states, including the Maya of Mexico and the Inca of Peru. Finally, Part IV describes four modern *folk societies,* which are local rural subcultures within contemporary states: namely, Chan Kom, a Moroccan village, a Chinese peasant village, and a village in India.

The author might have made a brief reference to the Ainu of Hokkaido or to the mountain cultures of Formosa. The chapters generally follow a uniform treatment: first, the ecological zones, then a brief historical sketch, the economy, family life, religious life, outstanding achievements like the calendar in Mayan culture, and, finally, a summary paragraph underscoring the most important features.

The book is well written and might well be used as a text in a one-semester introductory course in ethnology. Students should be encouraged to make frequent use of the bibliographies which follow each chapter, and, as a further suggestion, they might use some other treatise, for example, Iver Lissner's *The Living Past, 7,000 Years of Civilization,* as collateral reading to give a proper perspective.

WILLIAM KIRK
Claremont, California

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND WELFARE

LEISURE AND RECREATION. A Study of Leisure and Recreation in Their Sociological Aspects. By Martin H. and Esther S. Neumeyer. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958, pp. vii+473.

This third edition of the authors' textbook on recreation and leisure, first published in 1936 and revised in 1949, brings up to date a volume that has demonstrated its usefulness during more than twenty years. In contrast with other studies of the modern recreational movement, its emphasis from the beginning has been on an analysis of its sociological aspects. This particular emphasis has been carried out most fully in the chapters dealing with personality traits, group organization, and social disorganization, but throughout the book the authors' distinctive point of view is clearly evident. In this respect, this study of recreation is sharply differentiated from those written by physical education leaders who generally tend to be concerned with problems of organization and administration.

While this new revision follows closely the general outline used in the second edition, the chapters discussing recreational activities have been expanded to include important developments during the past decade.

The more recent publications have been listed and an effort made to present an accurate picture of the more significant changes in the attitudes and fashions in commercial as well as in community recreation. The long chapter describing recreational activities in many foreign countries is especially interesting and valuable. And the discussion of the inter-relationships between leisure-time activities and social and personal disorganization is a distinctive feature not usually found in books of this nature.

The authors have been successful in producing a textbook in recreation well suited for undergraduate students. Its value to recreation leaders could have been increased by summarizing in the final chapter on research some of the more pressing leisure-time problems and then calling attention to well-planned community research projects that are pointing the way toward their solution.   JESSE F. STEINER
                                        University of Washington

THE CITY IN MID-CENTURY. Prospects for Human Relations in the Urban Environment. Edited by H. Warren Dunham. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1957, pp. xi+198.

This volume is comprised of the sixth annual series (1955-56) of the Leo M. Franklin Memorial Lectures delivered at Wayne State University. The lecturers were Jose Luis Sert, Joseph D. Lohman, W. Fred Cottrell, Coleman Woodbury, and H. Warren Dunham. Four of the lectures are accompanied by abstracts of the remarks of a discussant.

Each of the lectures reveals a particular perspective of contemporary problems of city planning—which, rather than being a theoretical work on the sociology of present-day urban living, is what the book is about. The lecturers play their roles well. Sert, dean of the faculty of design at Harvard, speaks of architecture, often in terms of its social impact. "I do not think people are yet aware of the possible benefits they can derive from living in a [physically] planned community...," says he. Sheriff Lohman speaks of the problems of slums, race relations, and law enforcement in the city. Cottrell sees the city as one of the arrangements man has for converting energy into objects of human value. He discusses the implicit problems for community organization as sources of energy and methods for utilizing it vary. Redeveloper Woodbury, now professor of political science at the University of Wisconsin, talks of the politics of urban redevelopment and some problems of human relations. Dunham raises some pertinent questions about existing theory of urban growth,

as noted below. Wayne County Circuit Court Judge Wade H. McCree, Jr., Dunham's discussant, passes judgment on the role of social scientists in urban planning: "The value of social knowledge is afforded more by its analytical assistance than by its directional assistance."

Parts of the book will have special appeal to various audiences. Most provocative to the sociologist, perhaps, will be Dunham's challenges (1) of the conception of the city as an organism, (2) of the conception of a homeostasis between integrative and disintegrative forces in the city, and (3) of the "golden age myth" of the value of neighborliness to city dwellers.   THOMAS ELY LASSWELL

Grinnell College

PROBLEMS IN LABOR RELATIONS. Second Edition. By Benjamin M. Selekman, Sylvia Kopald Selekman, and Stephen H. Fuller. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958, pp. ix+702.

The first edition of this book precedes this new revision by some ten years, and the authors point out in the Preface some of the more significant changes that have occurred in the field of industrial relations. They are (1) the survival of collective bargaining as an institution; (2) the legislative restrictions, caused by a reaction against the thrust of power shown by big unions, curbing many union actions; and (3) "creeping" inflation charged by management against the periodic wage increases demanded by unions, and charged by the unions against the price increases made by management attendant upon the wage increases, or the shifting of blame.

As in the first edition, the casebook method has been retained for the presentation of materials. These have been placed under three major headings: (1) shop problems, (2) problems at the bargaining table, and (3) those problems affecting certain companies over a period of time long enough to indicate the accommodations made to entertain a cooperative relationship. This edition also stresses the power struggle that goes on between big management and big unions. Say the authors: "The conflict structure that arises from the determination of a management to refuse to deal with unions dominated industrial relations before 1933. Today it has become a secondary pattern in collective bargaining. Nevertheless, employers still remain who hold onto the earlier determination to bar unions by all means at their disposal." Other structures involved are those of balance of power, of containment, of accommodation, of cooperation, of deal bargaining, of collusion, of racketeering, and of ideology.

Part IV is devoted to one of the most interesting presentations of conflict and cooperation in a men's clothing manufacturing shop, revealing some daily problems of workers told in good, earthy language that would make appropriate dialogue for a drama. The whole atmosphere of labor relations in the making is undeniably explored by the many cases offered, and this lends an unexcelled reality to the study of these relationships.   M.J.V.

FAMILY CASEWORK IN THE INTEREST OF CHILDREN. *Social Casework*, Vol. XXXIX, Numbers 2-3, February-March 1958, pp. 121.

In this double issue of *Social Casework* is found a report on an indisciplinary conference held in Chicago, October 1957. An unusually good piece of organization has been achieved in presenting the conference contributions and discussions under the following six headings: family diagnosis, direct treatment of children in a family agency, research relevant to casework treatment of children, motivation for using casework services, social stresses on the family, and values and standards in educational activities. A strong point of this document is that the child is treated largely in terms of his family environment and in the light of many important frameworks of method. Emphases are placed on values, standards, motivations, research, goals. To a limited degree the role of social theory is utilized.   E.S.B.

TRENDS IN GERONTOLOGY. Second Edition. By Nathan W. Shock. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1957, pp. 214.

This edition brings the "Trends" up to date and covers the gerontological developments in population, employment and retirement, income maintenance, health maintenance, living arrangements, education, community programs and social work, research, and research potentials. The concluding chapter makes recommendations for an institute of gerontology with emphases on research, teaching, and rehabilitation and care. The needs in the field of gerontology, according to the author, range "all the way from presentation of factual material to attract young students into research to the broad education of the general public in attitudes toward old age." The book is noteworthy for its wide and accurate information in an important and rapidly growing social science field.   A.R.R.

LIGHT THE DARK STREETS. By C. Kilmer Myers. Greenwich, Connecticut: The Seabury Press, 1957, pp. 156.

This book relates the story of a priest with a parish on the Lower East Side of New York who tries to curb the delinquent activities of a teen-age gang. Acting as their adult adviser, he finds that each member has his own reason for joining a gang. Some are pugnacious, some have suffered cruel childhoods, some crave group acceptance, but all of them find in Father Myers the first adult who cares about them and is willing to help and understand them.

Through this book, one can gain a fresh insight into the behavior and motives of the boys as well as obtain a revealing look at their personal problems and backgrounds. In this respect, the author's approach to the sociology of gang life is quite human and refreshing. Many incidents are related in the first-person form so that one gets the feeling of actually being at Father Myers' side as he works with the gang.

Specifically, the volume deals with the Knights, a gang that needs help and gets it. In the description of this group, intimate pictures are given of some of the members as well as of the family life of two of the more antisocial members. A threatened street fight which portends violence and mayhem for the whole neighborhood is dealt with and handled in a most unusual fashion. It is this last section that makes for the most fascinating reading from a very readable book.   STUART A. BRODY

LOVE IS MORE THAN LUCK. An Experiment in Scientific Matchmaking. By Karl Miles Wallace, with Eve Odell. New York: Wilfred Funk, 1957, pp. 237.

Love Is More than Luck describes the social background, personality traits, and cultural backgrounds of 6,000 clients of a lonely-hearts club, called Personal Acquaintance Service. It reports that one in ten of the clients married another client. It compares clients of the club with 100 clients of Popenoe's American Institute of Family Relations.

This is a popular report on Wallace's six-year experiment in scientific matchmaking. Clients were introduced by correspondence to those who would be compatible with them in personality, contemporary in age, and alike in cultural background. Clients were required to answer fifty questions relating to temperament, sociability, conformity, attitudes toward sex, and religious orthodoxy; also additional questions on age, marital status, education, economic level, and the like.

The book describes the clients as a fairly normal population group, if one disregards such things as the preponderance of men, the middle-aged character of clients, and the social isolation of the clients. This is shown by the negligible misrepresentation of one client to another, by the small amount of moral and legal offenses, and by the normal personality traits of the clients. On the latter the book reports: "They are not markedly neurotic, unsociable, eccentric, wanton, or irreligious. Neither were they uneducated, unemployed, unlovely, or unsavory. ... They share a common handicap: isolation."

The professional sociologist may be disturbed by the fact that Wallace and Odell may have unconsciously upgraded the clients, by the occasional obvious attempt to be "cute" or popular, and by the feeling that Wallace and Odell believe that introduction clubs are good things and should be sold to the American public. Sociologists should remember that this book was not written for a professional audience. It is a deliberately popular volume and is to be followed by a professional technical report by Wallace on his research. Even the current report is filled with facts, figures, and letters from clients which illuminate this previously un-explored area of social behavior.   H.J.L.

FARM HOUSING. By Glenn H. Beyer and J. Hugh Rose. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957, pp. vi+194.

For the first time a book has been produced which focuses on the shelter aspects of the farm population. The main purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which farm homes are unique in the United States housing picture. The farmhouses of 1950 are described in terms of geographic location, economic class of farm, condition, age, size, equipment, and facilities. While the 1950 census data are used chiefly, comparisons are made with conditions as they existed in 1940. During the decade 1940 to 1950, the housing units increased by about 8,658,000, but the farm houses decreased by about 1,284,000, or about 16.8 per cent as compared with a 36.8 per cent increase of urban houses and 24.7 per cent increase of rural nonfarm houses. The total net increase of all housing units was 23.2 per cent.

The general characteristics of farm housing in 1950 indicate that of all occupied units, the proportion of owner houses increased, whereas the percentage of tenancy declined during the decade. The percentage of homes occupied by whites increased, but homes occupied by nonwhites

decreased. The size of farmhouses, as measured by number of rooms, increased and the proportion of dilapidated houses decreased considerably. Over a half million farmhouses were built between 1945 and 1950; a considerable proportion were occupied by families with incomes of less than $3,000 a year. However, many lacked modern conveniences, such as running water. The upper classes still had the best types of houses, but considerable improvements have been made in matters of sanitation and modern conveniences in the middle and lower economic classes.

A regional comparison of farm housing characteristics shows considerable variation by regions and within regions in standards and qualities of houses. The impact of urban centers of farm housing is felt in many areas, but chiefly in the areas near urbanized centers. Housing of the nonwhite farm families is the poorest, primarily because of the low income level, the higher proportion of tenancy, and the location in many instances in remote areas. On the basis of the analysis made by the authors, it is evident that there is a need for new definitions and concepts of farm housing. The authors also call attention to the problems of rural classification.   M.H.N.

MAN AND WIFE. A Source Book of Family Attitudes, Sexual Behavior and Marriage Counseling. Edited by Emily H. Mudd and Aron Krich. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1957, pp. xxvi+291.

This collection, although not uniquely different from a number of others in the last decade, is informative and well balanced. The two editors and most of the contributors are affiliated with the Marriage Council of Philadelphia or with the Department of Psychiatry at the University of Pennsylvania. In fact, the book grew out of a series of lectures for senior medical students at the latter institution.

The twenty-three chapters are organized into four parts: The Making and Breaking of Marriage—discussions ranging from early life experiences to the legal aspects of marriage; The Moral Climate of Marriage, presentations of our three religious orientations; Mating and Mismating, largely concerned with sexual problems; and The Meaning and Process of Counselling, reflecting practical aspects of marital counseling.

The symposium is for the most part of a neo-Freudian outlook, with little mention of specific names or systems. The well-chosen case studies along with other data prevent the book from becoming a series of clichés, which a number of works in this area have been. Some of the most searching papers are by P. Q. Roche, R. C. Astley, and W. L. Peltz. The discussion by J. H. S. Bossard on divorce deserves special mention.

Some readers will be disturbed by the relative lack of documentation and statistics, as the authors have employed generally an individual, genetic approach. The papers are more than occasionally repetitive, yet the work remains a contribution in the understanding of the dynamics underlying marital adjustment.   ROBERT C. WILLIAMSON
Los Angeles City College

MAKING MANAGEMENT HUMAN. By Alfred J. Marrow. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957, pp. xi+241.

This book is based on the author's experience in dealing with practical industrial psychology at the plants of the Harrow Manufacturing Corporation. In it he endeavors "to translate the special language of psychology into the terms of the daily life in shop and factory" for the attention of management, and does it very well. His introductory chapter is especially challenging despite what might well be termed an over-optimistic outlook voiced in such a sentence as: "Today the American people feel more confident that industry can meet the social responsibilities of an age in which atomic power and automation are opening up new ways of economic progress..." Having studied under the late Kurt Lewin, he has applied some of the working principles of group dynamics to the subject of managerial relations with specific working groups. In a certain sense the book might be called a handbook for management, since it is filled with good advice on such matters as how to make profit-sharing plans effective, how to obtain morale and productivity, how to make teamwork successful and the like. The social-psychological analysis of why people work is nicely pointed at the signposts of status, recognition, and participation. The text is furnished with a number of illustrative and amusing cartoons which are well correlated with the subject matter.   M.J.V.

CO-OPERATOR'S YEAR BOOK, 1958. Leicester, England: Co-operative Productive Federation, 1958, pp. 120.

Unlike many yearbooks, this one contains several signed articles that present carefully considered aspects of the cooperative movement. Attention is given to such themes as the need for greater unity of purpose in the cooperative movement, the relation of ideals and business in co-operation, the various methods of financing educational programs for cooperation, and the role of cooperative productive societies in the co-operative movement and in society.   E.S.B.

MARRIAGE ANALYSIS. By Harold T. Christensen. Second Edition. New
York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958, pp. x+645 (incl. Appendix and indexes).

In the Preface Dr. Christensen explains that the focus of the book
is on marriage. The method is "analysis" of problems, their appraisal
and possible solutions. The book is student centered, and its purpose is
to help students prepare for "successful family life."

While the subject is marriage education rather than the family as a
social institution, it is impossible to treat marriage apart from the family,
from the persons concerned and their relationships. Consequently, Part I,
The Study of Marriage: Why, What, and How? is followed in Part II
by a review of family organization and its changes, especially within the
United States. Part III is devoted to a discussion of marriageable person-
alities, the prenatal backgrounds of personality, personality development,
and social and emotional maturity. Part IV is entitled Interpersonality
Relationships. Included are subjects of sex standards, dating and court-
ship, selecting a marriage partner, engagement, wedding, honeymoon, and
the mental hygiene of mate adjustment.

Two chapters are given over to specific adjustments of husbands and
wives, illustrated by selected case materials. This fourth part closes with
chapters having to do with parenthood, parent-child relationships, the
aged and the single person—widowed, divorced, unmarried. One section
of the book lists the minimum qualifications for the professional marriage
and family counselor. The final section is entitled Preventive Programs.

The book is well written, comprehensive, and well documented. It is
clearly not a textbook for courses on the family as a social institution
and was not designed as such. It deals with marriage and with prepara-
tion for marriage and is directed to the college student. It is objective and
frank in its presentation of both fact and theory. One of its most signifi-
cant aspects is the author's own attitudes as stated in the Preface. "The
concept of *value relevance* has provided the interpretive framework for
the entire analysis. Our own value position, which holds to such things
as monogamy, chastity, and democracy in family relationships, has been
explicit. We have tried to avoid imposing these values upon the reader,
however, choosing rather to encourage him to think and to develop a
defensible value position of his own." Certainly in this present age of
uncertainty as to what are worth-while values, Dr. Christensen's own
philosophy is to be commended. Youth needs constructive help in finding
both purpose and direction.   B.A.MCC.

SOCIAL THEORY AND RESEARCH

EDUCATION AND HUMAN RELATIONS. By Ashley Montagu. New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1958, pp. 191.

Professor Montagu has, in these short essays, manifested a special ardor and zeal for stressing his conviction that the subject of human relations cannot be understood in full and comprehensive meaning until a thoroughgoing knowledge of what he terms human nature is mastered. The eleven expositions are concisely presented with a forceful clarity that makes for ease of reading. As a definite subject in the educational curriculum, human relations is not taught, "being more honored in the breach than in the observance," he declares. This omission calls for a shifting of the emphasis from the three R's to the fourth R, or human relations, and the cultivation of knowledge that is humanely understood and humanely used. One of the best essays deals with an excursion into the aggressiveness of the human being, which Montagu holds is not innate, as so many philosophers and writers have held, but is manufactured by the frustration encountered through a lack of the extension of love. Education redirected can master the situation, since through it man can evolve into a being endowed with a human nature defined in short as "what man makes of man, or what he makes of the children."

M.J.V.

THE POVERTY OF HISTORICISM. By Karl R. Popper. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1957, pp. xiv+166.

The author of *The Open Society and Its Enemies* has written a cogently critical essay on historicism. By this term Dr. Popper refers to theories which regard historical prediction as the principal aim of all the social sciences.

Dr. Popper does not deny the possibility of every kind of social forecasting, but he maintains (p. vii) that "the belief in historical destiny is sheer superstition, and that there can be no prediction of the course of human history by scientific or any other rational methods. . ." His book is the result of almost four decades of interest in the topic, and was first published in *Economica* (London) during 1944 and 1945. Now revised and expanded, it is an attempt to show that for strictly logical reasons the prediction of the future course of history is impossible, on the grounds that the future growth of scientific knowledge, which influences history, cannot be predicted. Thus, "if there is such a thing as growing human

knowledge, then we cannot anticipate to-day what we shall know only tomorrow" (p. x).

Similarly, no scientific predictor can forecast, by scientific methods, its own results. In arguments concerning the applicability of natural science methods to social study, Dr. Popper avers that there has been a widespread misunderstanding of the methods of physics.

The thesis of this stimulating and controversial work is close-knit and clearly expressed. Students of social change, interested in patterns and regularities, will debate the issues that Popper raises. Some historians will doubtless disagree with the logical claims and conclusions of his book. They cannot afford to ignore them.

<div align="right">

JOHN E. OWEN
Florida Southern College

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BRUECKE UND TOR. Essays des Philosophen zur Geschichte, Religion, Kunst und Gesellschaft. By Georg Simmel. Edited by Michael Landmann, in collaboration with Margarete Susman. Stuttgart, Germany: K. F. Koehler Verlag, 1957, pp. xxiii+281.

In this reviewer's opinion, the present volume is one of the most important books being published in the field of sociology in post-World War II Germany. The title *Bruecke und Tor* (Bridge and Gate) is derived from the first essay and is symbolical for the beginning renaissance of one of the greatest and earliest German sociologists and *Kulturphilosophen*. Such important works by Simmel as *Soziologie*, published in 1908, and *Ueber soziale Differenzierung. Soziologische und psychologische Untersuchungen*, published in 1890, have been out of print for many years and long before World War II. Therefore, the publisher, in collaboration with the editor, undertook to publish—mostly unabridged —those "classics" for which Simmel is famous as well as unpublished essays, particularly the essay on *Das Individuum und die Freiheit* (The Individual and the Freedom), probably written in 1917 and partly incorporated in the fourth chapter of Simmel's *Grundfragen der Soziologie*. The volume, which concludes with a complete listing of Simmel's works, as well as publications about Simmel, indicates clearly, how much other sociologists (notably Leopold von Wiese, Max Weber, and Ernst Cassirer) as well as psychologists owe to him. Not *die Gesellschaft* (society), but *die Vergesellschaftung* (social interaction between human beings), was Simmel's true "philosophy." He is also the direct forerunner of ego psychology and, therefore, a true ancestor of Freud, of whom he is a contemporary.   HANS A. ILLING

SOCIAL PROCESS IN THE COMMUNITY AND THE GROUP. By
Margaret E. Hartford and Grace L. Coyle. New York: Council on Social
Work Education, 1958, pp. 89.

This document is important because it helps to bridge the gap that has
developed between sociology and social work, particularly for social work
students. At Western Reserve University the students in social work who
take "Social Process I" receive basic material of a sociological nature in
at least twelve of the fifteen sections of the course. Such themes are
included as the nature of culture, social structure and social role, social
stratification, color-caste structure, the family in the social structure.

In the second part of the booklet, Dr. Coyle analyzes the group process
in a capable manner and relates it to various aspects of social work.
Special reference is made to "the state of social theory on the small
group," to the determination of group goals and of group membership,
to the nature of group structure, and to related topics of significance.

E.S.B.

RESPONSIBILITY IN MASS COMMUNICATION. By Wilbur Schramm.
New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957, pp. xii+291.

"The thesis of this book is that the present is a time of important
changes in mass communication; that a time of change is a time for re-
defining standards and responsibilities; and that these new standards and
responsibilities as they emerge are defining and delimiting a new phi-
losophy of public communication for the United States."

After indicating the growth and philosophy of mass communication,
the ethics and responsibility in mass communication are analyzed. The
enormity of mass communication today is indicated by the fact that in
1956, 1,760 daily newspapers had a total circulation of 56,147,459 copies
per day; 20 of the over 6,000 magazines had over a million circulation
each; 300 publishers produced 13,000 books, with a total sales of more
than 600,000,000 copies a year; over 100,000,000 radio receivers and over
36,000,000 television receivers were in operation; and the weekly motion
picture attendance was estimated at about 45,000,000. Except for movie
attendance, all forms of mass communication seem to have experienced a
rapid increase; and the United States has led the world in mass media
of communication and entertainment. It took 80 years before 34,000,000
American homes had telephones; but it took only 25 years and 10 years,
respectively, to put radio and television receivers into that many homes.

What are the social effects of mass communication? Inadequate studies

have been made of this problem, but the endless communication chains which cross and crisscross society help to bind it together. They also help us to correlate our responses, transmit culture, entertain us, and help the sale of commodities. The system of mass communication reflects the social and political structures within which it operates.

The author describes four systems and concepts of mass community under the headings of authoritarianism, libertarianism, Soviet Communism, and social responsibility theory. After discussing the problems of freedom in mass communication, he describes "the right to know," "truth and fairness," and the popular arts. The final section is devoted to the question of responsibility of the government, the various media, and the public in controlling and regulating the vast expanse of the media of mass communication. These three agencies or sources of control must be integrated. A major concern of the book is how the freedom of the individual and the vitality of the culture may be maintained at a time of "bigness" in communication, with the increasing concentration of the mass media in the hands of a few. There is a genuine need to reaffirm ethical standards in the dissemination of information. A wealth of case material is presented to substantiate this point.   M.H.N.

POPULATION THEORIES AND THE ECONOMIC INTERPRETATION. By Sidney H. Coontz.   New York: The Humanities Press, 1957, pp. 200.

The main objective of this book is to show the need for a general theory of population and the possibility of formulating such a theory. Since the author considers population to be dependent on economic development and fertility to be of central importance in population growth, his focus is on the contributions of economic theory to the understanding of population, particularly variations in fertility.

In the first and lengthier part of the book there is a review of population theories since Malthus. The two best chapters are those on classical and neo-classical economic theory and Marxist theory. The meaning and implications of the Marxist analysis of the changing organic composition of capital are lucidly presented. Some attention is also given to Soviet population theory. There is a chapter on Biological Theories and one on Cultural Theories. Coontz gives an excellent and critical evaluation of the theories of Sadler, Doubleday, Spencer, and Castro, but his criticism of Pearl is one-sided and fails to do justice to Pearl's contributions to the study of human fertility. There is a very good review of the works of Dumont, Nitti, Fetter, Brentano, and Ungern-Sternberg, but the

summary of studies on the effects of socioeconomic status and urbanization on fertility is inadequate and superficial.

A number of generalizations on fertility variations are presented in the second part of the book. There is also a very sketchy and incomplete analysis of the changes in the economic functions of the family since Roman times. This subject is too vast and complex to be handled in one short chapter. The climax of the book is reached when the author presents his own theoretical framework. In its barest outlines, the theory states that population growth depends upon long-range and short-range changes in the demand for labor in both its quantitative and qualitative aspects. Further conceptual clarification and empirical analysis will be needed for an evaluation of the theory presented by Coontz. The author is to be congratulated, however, for his attempt to link economic theory and the analysis of variations in fertility.   G.S.

REVIEW OF SOCIOLOGY. Analysis of a Decade. By Joseph P. Gittler, Editor. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957, pp. ix+588.

This volume presents an incorporation of fourteen essays by some of the leading sociologists on the recent developments (1945-55) in their own areas of specializations. The fourteen areas selected by Editor Gittler are theory, quantitative methods, population, personality and social structure, collective behavior, the urban and the rural community, social stratification, social institutions, industrial sociology, marriage and the family, small groups, racial and cultural relations, and delinquency and crime. Following the essays appear short notes and bibliographical appendices on the sociology of education, of politics, of religion, of art, and of culture change. Missing: leisure and recreation and research on leadership as such. Naturally, in a book of this sort, some of the essays are more valuable than others in the manner of presentation, in clarity of expression and thought, and in sharpness of detail. Nonetheless, the idea is not only excellent but stimulating in the way of indicating present trends and future possibilities for research areas in need of attention. Furthermore, the whole offering turns out to be an excellent reference volume not only for its inclusion of the many printed articles listed in the bibliographies at the end of each chapter but also for its pointed text references which appear in the bodies of the essay materials.

Beginning with an excellent but brief chapter on theory by Gittler and Manheim, and followed by a rather strong chapter by Stouffer on quantitative methods, all of the essays succeed in revealing most of the

significant contributions that have been made during the decade under
scrutiny. Each writer has been somewhat concerned with the relationship
of these to the particular area of interest. Many valuable appraisals have
been made of the types of research done in these sectors of the fields under
discussion, thus affording the reader something in the way of critiques.
Some of the reporting suffers from what probably has been a desire or a
necessity to brief it into a narrow space, and the reporting of what has
been done is often told with much more complexity than the actual per-
formances must have involved.   M.J.V.

RELIGION AND THE COLLEGE STUDENT. By W. Seward Salisbury.
    Albany: The Research Foundation, State University of New York, 1958,
    pp. 42.

The aim in this study was to find out "the extent to which the present
generation of college students reflects a seemingly widespread interest in
religion in the United States" at the present time. The study was based
on 1,675 schedules, obtained from students in ten of the eleven teachers
colleges of the New York State University system. The results show a
remarkable interest in religion; a total of 87 per cent "feel a need for it."
Should this fact influence the curricula offered by public educational
institutions? A negative answer is given as far as affecting adversely "an
individual's personal religious commitment" is concerned, but affirmative-
ly with reference to merely "giving information about religion," where
religion is "relevant to the subject area." The dividing line between these
two approaches is probably pretty hard to define, but the broad differences
would seem to be a significant standard.   A.R.R.

A FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATION OF SMALL GROUP RESEARCH
    STUDIES. A Pilot Study. By Joseph E. McGrath. Washington, D.C.:
    Air Force Office of Scientific Research, 1958, pp. 118.

This pilot study includes an extensive "collection of a working bib-
liography of small group research." A total of 1,279 references are in-
cluded. A framework for the organization of small group research
literature is given, and "a syntactical classification" for compiling infor-
mation in this field has been devised and presented. A sample of 100
research reports has been selected for the application of "the syntactical
classification procedures." The usefulness of the classification system is
examined, and the need for validation of the framework and the findings
is recognized.   E.S.B.

SMALL TOWN IN MASS SOCIETY: CLASS, POWER AND RELIGION
IN A RURAL COMMUNITY. By Arthur J. Vidich and Joseph Bensman.
Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1958, pp. xvi+329.

The authors of this volume spent three years of participant observation
in Springdale—the subject community—gathering data. With only one
footnote to tie it to specific existing theory, this ruggedly empirical
document of the social organization of an upper New York State village
of a thousand people and its circumjacent township deals with the effects
on personality and local society of the interplay between provincial and
mass societal forces.

The chapters vary widely in sociological significance. Some present
carefully, often keenly, drawn general statements which can be compared
with the findings of similar studies and with contemporary theory; others
deal primarily with the unique history and/or peculiar problems of the
community and its individual residents. The chapters which this reviewer
forecasts will be the most frequently cited in future literature are
Chapter 3, which deals with social class and economic stratification;
Chapter 4, a penetrating analysis of Springdale and the mass society with
affirmations of and implications for but no references to existing theory;
Chapter 10, on leadership; and the final chapter, on personality.

The chief sociological proposition set forth is that the social organiza-
tion of Springdale is—as presumably other such communities are—over-
whelmed by and hopelessly dependent upon the organization of mass
society. Its major corollary is that the personality of the individual resi-
dent is similarly affected but that, in *American Dilemma* fashion, he is
morally bound to deny both proposition and corollary if he is to survive
in the community. The proposition is demonstrated with necessary and
sufficient facts. The data for the corollary are impressive—perhaps a
little too impressive—and the demonstration is perhaps a little too con-
vincing. That is to say, the authors' enthusiasm for their findings becomes
so marked that the reader may begin to suspect the presence of some
strong personal biases. One begins to look for the statement, "After all,
urbanism really is the best way of life"; but it never comes off. At least
it never occurs in that form.

The book is a "must" for sociologists, anthropologists, and social
psychologists in many areas of study; also there will no doubt be some
demand for it from the more thoughtful readers of popular nonfiction.

                                        THOMAS ELY LASSWELL
                                          Grinnell College

STUDIES IN HUMAN ECOLOGY. A Series of Lectures Given at the
Anthropological Society of Washington. Washington, D.C.: Department of
Cultural Affairs, Pan American Union, 1957, pp. v+138.

These five lectures involve the general theme of man and environment.
Culture is defined as "a screen between man and the world around him,"
and human ecology as "the study of man in relation to the natural
environment." In the Foreword it is pointed out that the general effect
of these studies is "to place in perspective the theory of environmental
determinism, and to define the role of human ecology among the various
approaches to the study of culture."

Most of the themes are geographically localized, for example, Ecologi-
cal Potential and Cultural Development in Mesoamerica. Some of the
themes are topically localized, such as The Ecology of Human Disease,
which lays some groundwork for a new specialty called medical ecology.
The data are concrete and descriptive and suggest subtopics for further
research.   E.S.B.

GAMES AND DECISIONS. Introduction and Critical Survey. By R. Dun-
can Luce and Howard Raiffa. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957,
pp. xix+509.

This book, which has evolved from the Behavioral Models Project
of the Columbia University Bureau of Applied Social Research, provides
a critical and thorough exposition of the concepts of game theory with a
minimum of mathematical detail. The classical theory of games, as
developed by von Neumann and Morgenstern, has been used by mathe-
maticians to construct economic models of social interaction through the
metaphors of rationally played games of strategy. The present work
includes descriptions of contemporary efforts to extend the isomorphic
function of game theory to such areas of social interaction as value con-
flicts, group decision making, and social welfare planning. A series of
detailed technical appendices give the formal logic of these problems and
other problems of game theory.

The theory of games assumes that players will act so as to maximize
their expected gains; that the variables controlling the outcomes of
games are known and specified; that the players know the preference
patterns of each other; and that the game system is characterized by
"rationality." Such assumptions have made it difficult to incorporate
game theory into sociology, which generally has not been able to fit
closely its empirical data to models assuming rational behavior. However,
the authors have described facets of game theory which they hope will
lead to verified game models for special behavioral situations. While this

volume will be of significance to sociologists concerned with the construction of mathematical models, its contribution will rest on the models it generates that can be integrated with the corpus of sociological theory and verified by empirical observation.   M.J.V.

RELIGION, PHILOSOPHY AND SCIENCE. By Burnham P. Beckwith. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957, pp. v+241.

The author attempts to present a "Logical Positivism" for the layman. He feels that the "Logical Positivists" have proved, by semantic analysis, that the age-old problems of philosophy and theology are senseless. Comte called his classes theology, metaphysics, and positive science, which the author has renamed, as the title of the book indicates. However, he feels that Comte was probably the first to state the general theory of positivism, even though such men as Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill were more able and well-rounded positivistic thinkers. The principle of verification (the principle that a statement is meaningful if it can be verified by observation) does not mean that a statement must be verifiable in practice. The author defines religion as the ideas created or formulated by means of religious reasoning, which excludes religious ceremonies and mystical experiences; philosophy denotes conclusions on any subject which have been created and supported by philosophical reasoning; and science includes all truth-claims which are created by scientific reasoning. In the concluding chapter on Personal Conduct the author concludes that "the only way to tell whether one personal act is wiser than another is to observe its consequences."   M.H.N.

GROUP STRUCTURE AND THE NEWCOMER. By Theodore M. Milk and Others. Oslo, Norway: Oslo University Press, 1957, pp. 32.

In this brief document published under the auspices of the Institute of Sociology, University of Oslo, a project conducted by a seminar in the study of the small group is carefully described. It deals with "emotional integration" or "the degree to which each of the three members (of a small group) accepts, and feels accepted by, the others."

An important question that is treated involves "the dynamics of group expansion." When a fourth member, for instance, is added to a three-member group, what is likely to happen—a three-to-one cleavage or a two-to-two cleavage, that is, a triad and an isolate, or a double pair? The results vary with varying conditions, some of which are discussed in connection with this interesting project which puts considerable emphasis on role playing.   E.S.B.

SOCIAL FICTION

Management Engineer Bernard Lester, author of several technical books on engineering and industrial equipment, turns his attention here to the writing of a purposive novel and may be said to come off fairly successful in a theme that would tax the capacity of a Steinbeck. In it, he has attempted to present a plan for the betterment of relations both in and out of the industrial plant. The crisis in the Weatherby plant at Millington occurred when a newer management attempted to discard the principles of humanity held by the original founder of the plant, old Robert Weatherby.

The old man had worked along with his men for years, bestowing upon each of them a pride of accomplishment, thus securing a loyalty that became a legend in the plant. After his death in 1925, this legend grew more faint with the passing years. The story of the crisis begins twelve years later during the depression of the 1930's. Its chief protagonists are Jim Coulter, a young engineer who has become increasingly disturbed over the man vs. machine conflict in the plant, and Alfred Pearson, a British engineer rather silently eying the alteration of the old Weatherby spirit. The plant's president, Richard Sheridan, and his ally, Frosty Clemens, attempt to install a new efficiency system embracing some of the well-known principles once listed under the caption of scientific management.

The old Weatherby workers, led by Fred Smith, become disgruntled when they find the new principles tend to result in turning them into mere cogs. Fred organizes a local independent union which seeks to deal with an adamant management. A strike is called and the plant closes. Fortunately, Pearson has made a great impression upon old Miss Weatherby, chief stockholder. It is she who gives Coulter and Pearson hope. At this point, Coulter goes back to his "Valley,"—an idyllic Utopian spot in the hills back of Millington—for meditation and rediscovery of the human spirit. The author states that his novel is "intended to be an invitation to banker, manager, labor executive, and everyone who works to come to the Valley and live there. . . . It is intended to symbolize a state of mind marked by quiet, simplicity, and mental and moral honesty."

How to bring the Valley spirit into the plant is the big problem for

Coulter, who with Pearson, Miss Weatherby, and a spirited lawyer finally find a way to get the stockholders of the new corporate being to adopt a plan that will bring "the development of the individual toward the goal of satisfaction, contentment and happiness." The detailed plan is outlined in the novel with such earnestness that one wishes the novelist's contagious spirit might be caught by an industrial order worshipping money and encouraging dog-eat-dog competitors.   M.J.V.

ANATOMY OF A MURDER. By Robert Traver. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1958, pp. 437.

Lawyer and novelist Robert Traver has here turned out a rousing tale of murder, "of a murder trial and of some people who engaged or became enmeshed in the proceedings." Those interested in the sociology of law will find this account of the murder trial filled with details of the legal proceedings which happen to be concerned with almost everything that can happen in a courtroom scene—tension, legal semantics, wit, and repartee. The author-lawyer sets the scene in the small town of Chippewa, located in the county of Iron Cliffs, a region in the copper-and-iron area of the upper Michigan Peninsula. The story is told by Paul Biegler, a former district attorney for the county, who has been retained by Lieutenant Frederick Mannion. Mannion has killed one Barney Quill because the latter has let loose his savage sexual urge on Mannion's wife. How to defend a self-confessed guilty man and somehow or other convince judge and jury of the justice in slaying the notorious Barney by his client becomes a fascinating task for Biegler. He is ably assisted in the unraveling of the maze of incidental events in connection with the life of Mannion and his wife by an old-time lawyer, Parnell McCarthy, who has been inspired by the mystery into giving up his alcoholic tastes for a return to the art of sleuthing. Then, there is Judge Weaver, himself an enthusiastic member of the bench when presiding at a murder trial. Pitted against Biegler is the young district attorney, Mitch Lodwick, abetted and assisted by zealous and ruthless Claude Dancer, a brilliant prosecutor from the state capital.

Biegler decides that the only possible defense is temporary insanity at the time of shooting, described on the witness stand by the psychiatrist for the defense as dissociative reaction or irresistible impulse caused by extreme tension. The last half of the novel is taken up entirely with the trial, and, with some sure-fire strokes, the author manages to provide all the trappings essential for drama. One might label it as a display of legal talents caught in those high moments of suspense for which murder trials are noted.   M.J.V.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

THE PLANTATION. A Bibliography. By Edgar T. Thompson. Washington, D.C.: Pan American Union, 1957, pp. 93.

This bibliography contains 1,347 references which are classified under the following headings: the plantation defined and described, the theory of the plantation, the natural history of the plantation, the staples of plantation culture, the geography and ecology of the plantation. The scope of the bibliography extends beyond the United States to the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, South America, Africa, Malaya, India, and Ceylon.

THE NEUROSES AND THEIR TREATMENT. Edited by Edward Podolsky. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958, pp. 555.

About forty writers contribute sections to this analysis of neuroses and to proposals for treatment. Among a wide variety of topics are these selected at random: anxiety in infancy, the neuroses of everyday living, occupational neuroses, diagnosis and treatment of the phobic reactions, emotional problems of the middle-aged man, reassurance, and the place of sedatives in the treatment of psychoneurotics.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF HUMANISM. By Corliss Lamont. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958, pp. 243.

Among the various elements of humanism that are briefly discussed are these: what is humanism, different kinds of humanists, the humanist's theory of the universe, the humanist's reliance on reason and science, the ethics of humanism, a humanist civilization in which "humanism assigns to man nothing less than the task of being his own saviour and redeemer."

AMERICAN FREEDOM AND CATHOLIC POWER. Second Edition, Revised and Enlarged. By Paul Blanshard. Boston: Beacon Press, 1958, pp. 402.

In this edition of a book which was first published in 1949 and has had 26 printings totaling 240,000 copies, the author, who is a well-known New York lawyer, points out that he has brought his "factual statements" up to date regarding "the conflict between Catholic hierarchical power and American institutions" and that his "fundamental theses remain unchanged."

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